

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
Association of History Teachers
OF THE
Middle States and Maryland

Number 22

1924

History and Travel

Charles A. Beard

Methods of Teaching Social Sciences

Ella Lonn

The Place and Function of History

J. M. Gambrill

National Liberty and International Unity

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Political Background of French Foreign Policy

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BALTIMORE MEETING

May 9-10, 1924

HOTEL EMERSON, MEZZANINE FLOOR

Friday Afternoon, May 9, at 3 o'clock.

JOINT SESSION of Associations of the History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, and the History Teachers of Maryland.

TOPICS:

"How May More Adequately Trained Teachers be Secured for the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools", Dr. Alexander C. Flick, State Department of Education, Albany, New York.

"A Course in the Methods of Teaching the Social Studies in High Schools", Dr. Ella Lonn, Professor of History, Goucher College.

Discussion led by Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

Friday Evening, May 9, at 8:15 o'clock, Hotel Emerson, Ball-room.

ADDRESSES:

"The Teacher of History in Secondary Schools", Mr. Fayette E. Moyer, Head of the History Department of De Witt Clinton High School, New York City, President of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland.

"History and Travel", Dr. Charles A. Beard, New York City.

Saturday Morning, May 10, at 9:30 o'clock, Johns Hopkins University.

TOPICS:

"The Present Status of the Social Studies", Dr. Edgar Dawson, Professor of Political Science, Hunter College,

"The Place and Function of History", Mr. J. Montgomery Gambrill, Professor of History, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Discussion led by Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, The Lincoln School of Teachers College. Mr. E. Curt Walther, Department of Geography, Maryland State Normal School, Towson. Miss Laura J. Cairnes, Principal, Eastern High School, Baltimore.

HOW MAY MORE ADEQUATELY TRAINED TEACHERS BE SECURED FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

I. *Objectives in Modern Education.*

Sometime ago Bernard Shaw wrote a play in which he said that the world was done for unless somehow man learned to live three or four hundred years. Modern civilization is so multiform and complex, and citizenship to be creative involves so much more knowledge than can be obtained in an ordinary lifetime, that only a race of Methuselahs will be sufficiently wise to solve those problems on which progress depends. The difficulty with Mr. Shaw's advice is of course, that it is hard to follow. But I suspect that he did not really expect us to take his advice. Indeed, I surmise that if he were told that Mr. Asquith or Lloyd George was certain to live five centuries, he would pass away in a fit. What he actually had in mind was to state a big truth in an exaggerated manner to cause the public to think that men may live creatively and splendidly if they have the courage to do it.

So the bewildered and high-brow beaten teacher of the social studies in the secondary schools wonders how, without the gift of omniscience, or some sort of a life-extension process, he may prepare himself to teach all that is required of him by the specialists in the social studies. The historians demand that he know the whole past life of man, which scientists tell us may stretch back 500,000 years. The political scientists insist upon his mastery of the political organizations of the world in their multitudinous forms for human service. The economists want him to understand the various efforts made to solve the practical problems of existence. The sociologists modestly suggest that he master the "social evolution" of the race in order that he may know how to solve the social problems of the present and the future scientifically. The geographers stress the necessity of his comprehension of the influence of environment on human life and conduct. In addition to all this, the psychologist, the advocate of eugenics, the moralist, the one-eyed educational faddist, and the reformer with a single-tract mind point out the values of their special fields and hobbies.

In short, if certain well-meant programs are carried out, the teacher of the social studies in the secondary schools, will have to know the entire activity of the human race measured in time from the first appearance of man on earth, when only the scientists and H. G. Wells feel at home, to the Day of Judgment, where only the theologians and Sir Conan Doyle feel at home; and measured in space to include all parts of the earth inhabited by *homo sapiens*. Should we be surprised, in consequence, to see him become a convert to Bernard Shaw?

In the present period of uncertainty and flux, when educators everywhere are groping around frantically for some positive and reassuring solution of our social ills and disturbances, it is but natural that they should look with hope to the newer social studies—civics, economics and sociology. Has not history been taught in secondary schools for 300 years without saving the world? they ask. Does not one eminent economist assure them that the social studies, if organized as he suggests, will give our youth “an awareness of what it means to live together in an organized society” (L. C. Marshall); and does not another contend that these recent discoveries will bring our boys and girls to a realization of their “relations to others and of the growing interdependence of mankind” (Wilcox)?

To see how the western world has changed since the days of our great grandfathers, one needs but to glance at a Sunday newspaper—especially the comic supplement, or walk with open eyes through his own steam-heated, and mechanically efficient apartment, or patronize a dentist, or pay his bills by checks, or journey across a city. This transformation in the physical world, wrought chiefly in production, credit, transportation, communication and ways of living, has produced a corresponding transformation in our ideas, habits, reactions, duties and responsibilities. A *new social world* is as truly a reality as a new mechanical world—and far more important. We all know that our children must learn to live a group life and we want them to live worthily. It is not strange, therefore, that discerning and forward-looking men and women are beginning to believe that the demands of this new social world must be met by a new type of discipline and an altered point of view. The stress being laid on more practical forms of service through the church, on democracy in industry,

on the extension of the usefulness of government, and on the social studies in education is proof of this thesis.

Modern civilization, in the minds of many people, is still based on the old principle of the lightning rod, which brought insurance and protection. Security for the beneficial gains of this life and a guaranty of safety in the life to come seem to satisfy most persons. Governments, we are told, are instituted to promote the "general welfare", which to most people means the protection of life and property. Churches exist to engender "spiritual welfare"—and to sell insurance against fire. Social and industrial institutions have been developed to widen our comfort and to increase our happiness. Schools are created to abolish illiteracy, ignorance and superstition and to spread knowledge and enlightenment on the supposition that the educated live larger and more useful, and hence more enjoyable, lives. These social agencies, optimistic philosophers are wont to contend, if rightly directed, will save mankind from sin and destruction.

Modern education, as one of the most important of these social tonics, has two fundamental objectives. The first is to acquaint the young with the physical world—the origin of the earth, its formation, motions, climates, land and water areas, resources, the laws governing it, and the distribution of plant and animal life on it. To inculcate such knowledge, subjects like geography, biology, nature study, chemistry and physics have been introduced into the school curriculum. The second objective is to teach the youth something about man—his origin, his gradual advancement, his cultural growth, the development of his institutions, his needs and how to meet them, and his human rights, duties, responsibilities, and relationships. Hence such subjects as foreign languages, English, literature, history, civics, economics and sociology are used for this purpose. Music and art may be placed in the same category. Even the mathematical and technical subjects demonstrate the accomplishments of civilized man. It is generally believed that such a course in intellectual training will enable the boy and the girl, as maturity approaches, to live the best kind of a life with their fellows in a world with which they are acquainted.

Just now, with our civilization, which has been built up at so great a cost and which is being safeguarded by so many devoted

supporters, threatened with upheaval if not destruction from several quarters, alarmed professional educators and earnest laymen alike are looking to the newer humanities, the social studies, as a panacea to bring stabilization and tranquility. No one needs doubt, therefore, the status of the social studies for the immediate future, because they seem to constitute the new gospel for the salvation of society. From present symptoms, it seems probable that more rather than less emphasis will be placed on them in the creation of new curricula as an open sesame of high hopes. Emphasis may be shifted, of course, as doubts arise concerning their cure-all qualities, but that they will have their innings for a long period of trial and experimentation seems certain. In time, however, they may be discredited and placed *in limbo* with other outgrown fads and fancies.

In this readjustment, which is largely one of names and of emphasis, master workers in the guild of Clio are wondering whether history may be crowded out by the newer social subjects in much the same way as the classics, which now remind some persons on y of a misspent youth. Ancient history and English history seem to be receiving "absent treatment" at the present time; and mediaeval history is becoming so attenuated and denatured as to mean nothing. A thin survey of predigested world history, chronologically treated, with special stress on current problems, viewed horizontally, is all that some of our over-zealous allies would leave us. Even in American history, the colonial period of beginnings is sacrificed almost to extinction in order to rush forward to the "Land of Promise" and the "Deluge of Oil". I venture to predict, that the field of modern world history will be preempted, likewise, more and more by the poachers of civics, economics and sociology unless we historians bestir ourselves to action.

In the first place, it seems imperative, that we should make an effort to establish recognized boundaries to our domain and to agree upon specific objectives. "I have never been able to find half a dozen teachers of history", said one of the guild over a decade ago, "to agree on any one purpose for the teaching of their subject". Professor Henry Johnson tells us how one investigator's curiosity led him to discover that there were 39 different aims in teaching history. My own experience leads me to say that

that investigator did his work with but one eye or else stopped for want of courage to continue, for I venture to predict that any amateur could easily put Heinz's varieties in the shade without much effort. The simple fact is that history in the schools—and out of them, too, for that matter—has been a foot-ball to be kicked about in any direction by any person with an itching foot. With truth does Professor Johnson suggest that these 39 or more aims taken together constitute one valid reason for not teaching the subject at all.

Unfortunately the greatest confusion seems to exist in attempting to define history. Indeed there has been a multitude of definitions. History has been called literature, morals, (Rollin of Ancient History fame), a biography of great men, a record, "a fable agreed upon" (Napoleon), "the gossip of the past", "a collection of facts" (Hume), "the biography of society" (Dr. Arnold), "the unfolding of the idea of freedom" (Hegel), "philosophy teaching by example" (Lord Bolingbroke), "a picture of human crimes and misfortunes" (Voltaire), "a pack of lies" (Walpole), and "bunk" (Ford)—to cite only a few typical variations. Many years ago, as a graduate student, I recall hearing it stated that, when the library of Johns Hopkins was erected, above the entering archway appeared Freeman's definition: "History is the politics of the past; politics are the history of the present", or as Sir J. R. Seeley's aphorized it.

"History without political science has no fruit;
Political science without history has no root."

Years ago that definition was effaced. Another very common idea is that history is a book. Every library has dozens and even thousands of volumes labelled "History". But is history a book? Is the book not merely Dr. A's or Prof. B.'s conception of history? Is not true history something behind the book upon which the book is based? At most one may advance the claim that the book is only *written history*—and that there is a vast *unwritten history* outside of the book.

Lord Bolingbroke in his "Letters on the Study and Use of History" written in 1735 said: "The motives that carry men to the study of history are different". Some study it only for amusement just as "they play a game of cards". Others read

it to be able to "talk, to shine in conversation and to impose in company". They "grow in impertinence as they increase in learning". But these are "the two lowest forms". A third class is composed of those "who grow neither wise nor better by study themselves, but they enable others to study with greater ease, and to purposes more useful: who make fair copies of foul manuscripts, give the significance of hard words, and take a great deal of grammatical pains". The fourth class is made up of great names but it is of much less use. They combine the materials of history into every form and pass as learned scholars. God alone understands them!

But what is history? Have we a common consensus of opinion as to its meaning? I venture to say that if you teachers of history were to write out your own definitions and read them here this afternoon, the variety would be astonishing. Yet at least since 1864, 60 years ago, when James A. Froude read his paper on "The Science of History" before the Royal Institution, seriousminded historians have taken pride in being searchers for the truth by methods that are scientific. Although absolute unanimity is not to be expected, and perhaps not desirable, still there should be a more general agreement than exists at present. The more recent tendency in defining history is to widen its scope. One prominent living historian tells us that "History in the wider sense is all that has happened, not merely all the phenomena of human life, but those of the natural world as well" (Shotwell). Another says: "History, in the broadest sense, is everything that ever happened....it is the past itself" (Johnson). And still another contends that ideally history is everything that man has been, done, thought and felt, while practically it is only what we can know about man's life. Bernheim defines history "as the science of men in their activities as social beings".

If we accept this more recent conception of the scope of history, then are not the devotees of civics, economics, sociology, anthropology, literature, psychology, and morality allies who should co-operate with historians and not foes or even rivals? At the same time, if the historian recognizes the validity of the pretensions of all these claimants pressing for recognition, will he not be left holding the bag? On the contrary, as I view the situation, the social studies all teach history under different labels

and terms; and the wide-awake, well-prepared teacher of history teaches all of the social studies! The old house is there however many coats of paint of different colors are put on it. The alphabet is still the alphabet in whatever order the letters are arranged. And after civics, economics, sociology, geography, psychology, and anthropology have staked out their claims and secured good titles to their holdings, apparently monopolizing most or all of history's territory, there will still remain the important task of discovering the facts, and of correlating and integrating them in order to obtain an understanding of civilization as a whole. In addition to this explanation of the unity of human life, there will also be left the necessity of showing the development of ideas and institutions in group life, and of pointing out the causal and resultal forces in human affairs. To whom but the historian are these tasks left? The historian need have no fear of the elimination of his subject from the realm of desirable knowledge.

I confess that I am growing weary of hearing certain words and phrases used without strict definition. "History" might with advantage give way to the more comprehensive term civilization, and then perhaps we could more clearly see the political, economic, social, religious, and cultural phases of it. "Citizenship" is a purely political term, too local and too narrow, and falls far short of suggesting the duties and responsibilities we wish to have the individual meet. "Problems" is a word too indicative of muckraking. "Democracy" is a thing none of us know much about and might well give way to some phrase like popular government.

But the questions still confront us: Shall we historians surrender to the other social studies? Or shall we absorb them by conquest? Or shall we form a friendly, co-operative league with them on the solid premises that we have, after all, a common field of work and a common goal? The "new history" certainly connotes a whole of which the various social studies are merely parts. It would be better, I believe, to change our terminology and our aims to meet this synthetic idea. A gesture in that direction has been made in certain states. For instance, in New York, although the program of social studies is labelled "Syllabus in History", still Course A, a survey down to 1789, is called "The Rise of Civilization to 800" and "The Growth of Civilization from 800 to 1789".

In course B on "World History from 1789 to 1920" and Course C on "American History: People, Institutions and Government", although called history, the economic, political, social, educational and religious phases of civilization are stressed throughout in order to give teachers and pupils an idea of human life as an institutional whole.

But what has all this to do with securing more adequately trained teachers of the social studies in the secondary schools? I have made clear, I hope, (1) That there are two fundamental objectives in our education today—a knowledge of the earth and an understanding of man's evolution. (2) That in the comprehension of man's development, individually and in group life, the social studies are imperative, and all have essentially a common goal. (3) That teachers of the social studies in the secondary schools, to realize this aim should be able to visualize civilization, to comprehend its content, and to have pupils see and feel the development of the race as a whole and in some detail. How many of our present teachers can do that? Securing more adequately trained teachers means to get teachers with this vision of society as an entirety, with professional training in the most important phases of civilization, and with the pedagogical technique to arouse in boys and girls a desire to know something about civilization and to do some constructive thinking. Furthermore, it must be remembered that educators still believe that some other subjects than the social studies have an important part of the high school curriculum. At most the social studies have but a quarter of a student's time and perhaps on the average less than one-eighth, or 10 hours out of 80. In that 12½% of the pupils course the teacher of the social studies must accomplish all the miracles we wiseacres point to as the desiderata.

II. *Minimum Requirements.*

Confronted by both the vastness and the importance of the problem of teaching the social studies in the secondary schools, is it not high time that we historians allay our fear of usurpation, stop wrangling over names and definitions, and devote more time and thought to the medium through which the efficacy of the social studies is to be obtained? President Angell of Yale and other eminent educators publically confess that our greatest

educational problem in the United States is how to obtain better trained teachers. Back of that problem lies another, namely, how to get better teachers.

In an endeavor to improve the instruction in the social studies, perhaps the first efforts should be directed towards aiding those teachers who are now in charge of the work in the secondary schools. In an excellent article in the *Historical Outlook* for May, 1922, Professor Dawson has called attention to "the defects of the present system" owing to insufficiently prepared teachers of the social studies in our secondary schools. These "defects" may be summarized as follows:

1. The idea still prevails widely among school administrators that the social studies are either so elementary or so worthless that any teacher prepared in any field or no field is qualified to do the work. Thus the social studies are poor orphans, fatherless and motherless, awaiting adoption by any charitably inclined teacher not already overburdened with his own family cares. Under such well-meant but destructive guidance, what becomes of our high hopes centering in the social studies? Fraud, embezzlement, and assassination would be terms not too harsh in characterizing the results.
2. In the vast majority of the secondary schools the history teacher is the only person with any sort of preparation to do the work. Too often his training and subsequent study have been confined to the old political and dynastic type of history. Of the newer and broader outlook, of the progress made in civics, economics, and sociology, and of the present demands for intelligent citizenship and international co-operation, he has little more conception than he has gleaned from Sunday School classes, sermons, the local newspaper, an occasional journey to a nearby city, or a glimpse at some cocksure magazine summarizing the doings of the day. What prospect do the social studies have in his hands of rendering the service hoped for by their sponsors? Yet today throughout the nation in general the best teachers of the social studies are those trained in history alone.

What can be done to remedy this deplorable situation? An answer to this question should be our immediate concern. Let me suggest some of the things that may be done to better present conditions:

1. In some way school administrators should be made to realize that it is an educational crime to put classes of boys and girls in the social studies in the hands of teachers without any, or even little previous preparation in those subjects. It is unjust to the pupils because their ideas and views are apt to be distorted as a result of such malpractice; and it is unfair to the teacher who can take no pride in unprofessional work. How long shall we wait before we believe that the care of the intellect is at least as important as the care of the body? Who would turn over a delicate case of surgery to a specialist in dentistry or a veterinary surgeon because both had a doctor's degree? Who would think of taking his broken watch for repairs to a skilled electrician? The law protects the public from incompetent physicians. Do our children not have the right of similar safeguards? The customary plea of economy should not be permitted to count. An awakened public opinion, and a developed sense of responsibility mingled with conscience in school authorities, should put an end to this barbarous practice of asking teachers to teach subjects about which they know nothing. Mark Twain said that we would never have an honest horse race until we had an honest human race. Education will not produce the fine results we desire until we improve our teaching facilities.
2. Somehow we must develop in our teachers themselves a greater sense of professional pride. They must learn to take their life-work seriously. They must feel themselves masters of some branch of knowledge and get their greatest joy out of the realization that they are inculcating a portion of the truth. Teachers with such ideals will feel themselves degraded and insulted to be asked to attempt a pedagogical task for which they are unfitted because unprepared. If professional organization will encourage this attitude, let us have more of it. Teachers must become something more than mules of the educational regime—mere "hewers of wood and drawers of water". They must become conscious of ideals and standards, and live up to them. In the end such conduct will bring its rewards even in material things.
3. Finally, there is the teacher who has been prepared to a greater or lesser degree as a specialist in history. He is now confronted by a situation that is disturbing. The crop of new syllabi to meet reorganized curricula demands a new type of history—broader, deeper, with new foci—

and, what is more shocking, new subjects like civics, economics, and sociology. Everywhere this new burden confronts the history teacher. The assumption that he is qualified to meet the task is of course in itself complimentary both to himself and to the value of his field of work. When the Council of Pisa in 1409 sought to dispose of the two schismatic popes and chose Alexander V, thus only adding to the confusion instead of bringing unity to the church, a chronicler of the day makes the church say: "At first I had but one husband, and that was quite enough; then I acquired a second by misfortune. Now they have given me a third! In heaven's name, what shall I do?" The teacher of history today no doubt feels a similar reaction in looking at his new duties.

May I suggest some things that the experienced teachers may do to meet this new situation?

1. There is the opportunity for advanced work in innumerable summer schools, where particular attention is paid more and more to the needs of ambitious teachers. Four sessions will, as a rule, earn a master's degree, at the same time afford a survey of the new subjects and bring contact with the enthusiasms, opinions and hobbies of men who at least pose as authorities in their work. Scholarships are offered to the financially needy rather generously. Thousands of teachers are within reach of colleges and universities, and with some determination they might take courses in extension work, or in evening or Saturday classes. Nor should the opportunities of supervised correspondence courses offered by reliable universities be overlooked by those who are distant from centers of higher learning. It is an encouraging sign to see school administrations holding out inducements to their teachers to take advantage of these opportunities.
2. There are books—a deluge of them on the newer social studies. A matured, well-balanced mind will find in them an inexpensive opportunity to explore. Of course books can never give that vital spark that comes from contact with men who wrote them, or at least could write them, but still they are a fairly satisfying substitute. Magazine articles, particularly in the more professional journals, should be mastered by the teacher, who wishes to be well-informed and to get every suggestion that will improve the value of his work. The newer syllabi, which have appeared in recent years, should be obtained and

carefully studied. It is also important to do some thinking to have opinions!

3. There is the zest and inspiration that comes from travel at home and abroad. To visit other groups of people, to observe their ways of living and their institutions, and to come into personal relationships, not only widens one's horizon and corrects one's perspective, but also deepens one's sympathies and increases one's understanding of the world and its problems. A doughboy of Newark, N. J., is reported to have expressed this brilliant reflection: "There is a hell of a lot of difference between Newark and Paris, but you have to go to Paris to find it out!" The movies are, on the whole, a poor substitute for actual travel.
4. There is organization. City, county, state and national associations of teachers of the social studies in both the higher and lower institutions of learning are worthwhile as mediums for discussion, conference, investigation, and improvement.

There should be some inducement or pressure to have the teachers of the social studies qualify themselves more adequately for their work. Perhaps the most effective means of bringing this to pass would be a graduated financial reward for advanced college work, supervised home study, and travel under expert direction. School administrators should see the wisdom of such a stimulus because its effects would be felt in the improved scholastic results of the school. Some fixed system of leave of absence on pay should be devised for teachers in the public schools to enable them to take advantage of travel and study.

The government spends many hundreds of thousands of dollars on junketing trips for legislators. Could public funds be invested to better advantage than by affording those who are training our citizens the opportunity to improve themselves by travel? I suggest this as one of the means for utilizing the thousands of ships owned by the government and now lying idle.

I wish next to direct attention to the new teachers coming from the colleges and universities who will be called upon to supplement the experienced teachers of the social studies in the secondary schools. Manifestly more and more we shall look to that source of supply for recruits. Here I am going to be somewhat dogmatic and make a plea for an agreement on certain definite *minimum requirements*:

1. We may assume, I think, that graduation from college or a normal school of collegiate rank should be a prerequisite.
2. Considering the scope and character of history as the mother of the other social studies, and an indispensable aid to them, prospective teachers of the social studies should take a minimum major in history consisting of 24 hours out of the 120 required for graduation. Another reason for this suggestion is that in many colleges the work done in government, economics and sociology is still much weaker than that in history. These 24 hours should be taken in the last two years of the college course, preceded, if possible, in the freshman or sophomore years, by some general survey course in civilization.

The major work might profitably be divided into 12 hours of European history, 6 hours in American History, 2 hours in Method, and 4 hours in historical research. Such a distribution of emphasis should acquaint the prospective teacher with a fairly large portion of the growth of civilization. It should also introduce him to the most important sources, both primary and secondary, and give him a first-class drill in how to use the sources for constructive historical work—how to weigh evidence, and how to arrive at warrantable conclusions. This research work might result in the construction of a dissertation. For years I conducted what may be called, with apologies, a seminar with college seniors. Such a research course, where teacher and students meet in weekly conferences for reports, discussions and criticisms, may become the most fruitful work undertaken with undergraduates. Students quickly discover that real history is not a book but is found in the source materials that lie back of the book. They develop a critical attitude, the power to discover and to recognize the truth, habits of analysis and synthesis, the capacity to add fact to fact and to interpret their significance, and the intellectual acumen to pass intelligent judgment on the worth of secondary works. They come to know that an assumption does not become a fact until it is proved true by two or more creditable witnesses, and that our historical knowledge is built up of such demonstrated facts. Of course history involves processes as well as facts. To know how to separate truth from error is one of the most important accomplishments of man.

The results of the major work, therefore, should be (1) a good knowledge of the general scope of civiliza-

tion; (2) an intensive study of some one phase; (3) an understanding of and some familiarity with the sources of history; and (4) actual exercise in criticism and the use of the sources in the solution of some problem.

The devotion of approximately one year out of four to specialization in civilization in the manner suggested, should give a satisfactory preparation to prospective teachers of the social studies whose mentality and personality average good and better. In addition, I for one, feel that they should be given a suitable course in method of at least two hours a week for one semester to be supplemented by actual practice under supervision in teaching a class in a real high school. This work should be conducted by the ablest man in the department and not turned over to the professor of pedagogy. This course should stress the best material for instruction but more than that it must demonstrate how to get pupils to think history and to feel history. If it were not so sadly neglected, it would be a redundancy to add that these aspirants for a pedagogical career should be encouraged to read widely and intensively both before and after graduation, to continue research work in some chosen field, and to write articles for publication. Such a teacher will not grow stale.

Further, candidates for positions as teachers of the social studies should not be permitted to remain under the delusion that preparation in history alone, however thoroughly and comprehensively it may be done, is sufficient to enable them to teach civics, economics and sociology. They will have obtained the background the setting, valuable points of view, useful data, and methods of much service in teaching the newer humanities. But the specialists in civics, economics and sociology have their own unique contributions to bestow upon the neophyte. Some knowledge of the literature also must be gained. The theories and principles must be understood. It is not too much to demand of those who want the best possible equipment to teach the social studies that they carry a required minor of six hours in civics, because next to history, civics receives the most attention at present in the secondary schools; and a similar minor in economics and sociology. A general survey course and, if possible, at least one intensive course, should be taken in each of these three subjects.

Indeed some research work either in the library or of a more practical nature in the field, would be a beneficial asset.

Finally, certain auxiliary subjects may be taken with profit in Education, Psychology, Philosophy and Literature for they all contribute to the grist of the mill of the adequately trained teacher of the social studies.

Summing up the minimum requirements they would include (1) a preparatory course of 6 hours in world civilization taken in the junior college; (2) a major of 24 hours in history in the senior college; and (3) three minors of 6 hours each; or a total of 48 hours out of the 120 usually necessary for graduation. Thus 72 hours would be free for absolute requirements and for electives. In other words about one year and a half out of the four would be devoted to special training. No one could justly charge such a student with taking a "normal school course", or with over-specialization, for under this plan he could not possibly pursue a broader or more fundamental training in the "liberal arts". At the same time I cannot conceive of any subject matter or any modern problem connected with any reasonable course in the social studies, with which a teacher having such an equipment might not be sufficiently familiar to handle it satisfactorily.

III. *Points of View.*

Appreciating the pedagogical worth of a thorough mastery of the subject matter of the social studies, I have stressed reasonable minimum requirements in history, civics, economics and sociology. At the same time it seems to me to be highly imperative that from the major and minor subjects certain definite points of view should be mastered, because they are fundamental, guiding principles. At the risk again of being dogmatic I wish to suggest the following category of essentials. As I do so I desire to acknowledge my indebtedness to my colleague of many years, Dr. W. H. Mace whose little volume, "Method in History", has been at least one of the sources of these convictions:

1. Civilization is the product of two forces—the physical and psychical. Deeds, events, happenings and occurrences constitute the former—ideas, feelings, love, hate, fear, envy, jealousy, likes, dislikes and passions, the latter. In human behavior, both individual and collective,

thoughts and emotions are the primary causal forces, while actions are the results. Men think and feel, and then they act. This concept is fundamental to an understanding of the social studies. What men have done and are doing today is due to mental impulses. One cannot understand the significance of the social studies without comprehending this dual character of human life. For instance, Luther's appearance before the Diet of Worms as a gaunt, hollow-eyed monk, the words he uttered, and the presence of the young emperor and the leading dignitaries of the day are meaningless unless one feels the deep convictions and the passionate religious emotions in conflict at that momentous gathering. The real Bunker Hill was a clash of ideas and not merely a fight between New England farmers and British redcoats. Few things in human life merely "happen". Can there be any doubt as to which of these two sides of the social studies is the more important? Yet most of our textbooks continue to be merely vivid descriptions of the picturesque and the typical occurrences of the past with little or no attempt to explain the potent intellectual forces back of them. This may be due to the fact that the physical phenomena of the social studies appeal to the human senses—they may be seen, heard and felt—while the psychical forces may be comprehended only by the mind. The well-qualified teacher of the social studies should be conscious continually of this two-fold nature of human life.

2. Ideas constitute the most potent forces in civilization. Not only do they lead men to act, but they are transferred from man to man, generation to generation, and age to age continually realizing themselves in some form of activity. Ideas in vogue among the Greeks may be recognized in American civilization today. Religious concepts of 2000 years ago are still living. Moral precepts of the days of Moses have persisted to our times. This stubborn persistence of ideas, and of institutions as the material realization of ideas, is so universal in the life of man that for years historians have referred to it as the law of continuity. Professor Cheney in his recent address before the American Historical Association put this law first in his list of six. The teacher of the social studies must recognize this law and lead his pupils to see it in operation as the central fact of civilization. It explains not only the perpetuation of forms of political, social, religious, economic and educational organizations but

also the survival of styles of architecture, art and dress, language and literature, and the customs and modes of living of various peoples.

3. Ideas not only continue; they also spread. But they do not continue over a long period of time, or spread over a wide area, without change. Indeed it may be questioned whether any idea is transmitted from one person to another without some subtraction or addition. Oftimes the mutations are so pronounced, before an idea has travelled very far, as to bring astonishment to and even repudiation from the original announcer of the idea. Have you ever indulged in the surprising game called gossip? The participants sit in a circle. The leader writes down on a piece of paper some statement and then whispers it to his neighbor. In this manner the assertion goes about the circle in great secrecy and when it reaches the last person, it is again recorded. The first and last records are then compared, with results that are oftentimes ridiculous beyond belief. The human machine seems to be a fickle medium through which to report facts, because such factors as an untrained eye and ear, or a deceptive tongue, or an over or under-developed imagination, or a mind that either deliberately or in honest error, inadvertantly distorts the truth, enter into the process. As a result of all these forces, ideas not only continue but they grow, develop and undergo transformation as they continue. If you compare an idea separated by a century of time, or by half the circumference of the globe, the fact of differentiation is as a rule quite evident. In this alteration, ideas may decline and sometime even seem to die out and disappear, although it may be questioned whether this ever actually happens.

Enough has been said to demonstrate that just as there is a law of continuity in human society, so there is a law of change or difference. The teacher who is not conscious of the operation of this law is unable to make a study of the past helpful in solving the problems of the present. He is incapable of comprehending how the state, church, home, factory and school of today are the products of innumerable experiments and conflicts of past centuries. How can he know the meaning of progress? How can he comprehend what is meant by the assertion that we are now living in a new world? How can he train boys and girls to meet the responsibilities of citizenship and to help solve the gigantic problems of our age?

4. Ideas not only persist and undergo a differentiation as they persist, but they also tend to realize themselves in concrete institutions. These institutions likewise change. From primitive times one may trace the growth of the church through a multitude of transformations. In like manner the evolution of the state may be followed among all groups of people. The school, the home and the shop have undergone a similar development. Thus a law of institutional growth embracing all the activities of society—religious and moral, political, industrial, cultural and social—may be discerned. Few historians, however, have attempted as yet to use this five-fold classification scientifically. But the teacher of the social studies should understand the value of this conception of civilization for purposes of interpretation. This law, rightly understood, should bring unity to the social studies.
5. The causal and resultal relations in human affairs have been pretty generally neglected. Writers of text books give the causes and effects of great upheavals like the Reformation, the wars, and the revolutions, but they do not show how causes are continually at work producing results in intervals of peace as well as of conflict. Ideas are the primary causes, but in the more complicated relations of society deeds as well as ideas become causes, and ideas may be results. To my mind, in teaching the social studies, nothing better enables a class to understand the relations and significance of a movement than to dig out the causes—causes of time like remote and immediate; causes of manner such as direct and indirect; causes of importance including fundamental and particular; causes of inherent moral value like positive and negative; institutional causes, geographical causes, and others. In the same way results may be studied and classified. The law of cause and effect should receive more attention than it does from the teacher of the social studies if he wants to develop in his pupils the power to analyze, the capacity to discriminate and the ability to generalize.
6. But it is not enough to see that civilization is made up of ideas and actions; to detect the operation of the laws of continuity and change everywhere; to understand that society is made up of five parallel streams called institutions; and to recognize causal and resultal relationships at every stage of man's growth. The adequately prepared teacher must understand the

interrelation of ideas and of institutions. He must know that in the past sometimes the political predominated, again the religious, and then the economic, but that each institution affected all the others, and all the others each. A war in Europe, primarily political or industrial, touches the social, educational and religious institutions. An earthquake in Japan shakes the world and brings a response of aid from all people. A revolution in Russia becomes a world menace or a world blessing. In short the law of unity in civilization is just as pronounced as the law of continuance, the law of change, the law of cause and effect, and the law of institutional growth. The teacher of the social studies who is unaware of the law of unity, is like a blind man in a world of light and beauty. To see humanity as a whole is to gain a tolerance, a broadmindedness and a sympathy that will help to break down the barrier of provincialism and selfishness.

IV. *The Struggle for Recognition.*

The question now remains: what means may we employ to secure the kind of preparation suggested in this discussion? If it were true that good teachers are born and not made; then we could easily solve the problem by turning it over to the champions of eugenics with specifications. For one, I refuse to accept that solution. Without discounting the value of personality and native ability, I venture to hold that we must look to a clearly defined and well-directed preparation for adequately trained teachers of the social studies. Since the vast majority of such teachers come from the colleges and universities, it is necessary to bombard these institutions of higher learning with our legitimate propaganda. These cultural strongholds are not as impregnable as we might think. A service of 27 years in one of them convinces me that instead of really leading the educational parade, they have their eyes and ears—and coffers as well—open for suggestions from religious leaders, school administrators, and intelligent captains of industry. I believe they honestly strive to become more and more serviceable to society. Repeatedly they have capitulated to the demands of the secondary schools. Just now they are stumbling over each other to meet the suggestions coming from all sorts of groups in the business world—manufacturing, transportation, mining, salesmanship, management, accounting, stenography and

typing, foreign trade, hotels, realtors, agriculture, horticulture, forestry, landscape gardening, poultry raising, stock breeding, dairying, bee keeping, interior decoration, dressmaking, cooking, marketing, insurance, etc.

A questionnaire sent out by the National Bureau of Education to colleges and universities to ascertain what was being done toward training teachers in the social studies met with the following results:

1. Out of 100 of the most fully answered papers 25% ignored the question of what subject matter was offered, and the rest gave a wide variety of answers.
2. 50% said something was required of prospective teachers of the social studies, but the information was indefinite.
3. 33% required history only.
4. Only 2% required government and economics.
5. 23% gave a course in method in the history department.

The conclusion seemed to be that no common practice prevails in preparing teachers for the social studies and that there is little directed preparation. Yet, these same institutions have very definite requirements for law, medicine, dentistry and engineering, because these professional schools have set forth their demands, while teachers of the social studies are left to *drift*.

In this stampede to meet the needs of modern economic life, surely the social studies deserve more serious consideration at the hands of the institutions of higher learning than they are now receiving. This lack of response, I believe, is due to our own innate modesty and to disagreement in our own camp. Let us advertise more widely and express more emphatically both to the public and to the administrators of secondary schools, and colleges and universities, the imperative necessity of more adequately equipped teachers of the social studies for the secondary schools. Let us also seek the co-operation of our allies within college faculty circles in formulating a sensible and reasonable program. As yet it can scarcely be said that we have done either. Too much of our time and energy have been consumed in curriculum-making and too little in teacher-making.

May I suggest some concrete but, I trust, practical suggestions which associations like those represented here may utilize to bring about such pressure as will supply us with the kind of

teachers we want? It may be taken for granted that the utility of the social studies as a part of our educational system is so widely recognized that we may now devote our attention to the problem of teacher-training.

1. This Association might appoint a committee representing the five commonwealths included in it with power to name the necessary sub-committees in each state to gather the facts on the following points:
 - (a) the number of teachers of the social studies in the secondary schools with no specific professional preparation;
 - (b) The number with inadequate preparation;
 - (c) The number with suitable preparation.

Perhaps data might be obtained to show the disastrous effects on the pupils of the teaching of groups (a) and (b).

An investigation of the colleges and universities in this geographical area should be made also to ascertain (a) the number of institutions clearly offering the minimum preparation for teachers of the social studies; (b) the number requiring this minimum preparation before recommending their graduates as teachers of the social studies; and (c) the number showing indifference to either (a) or (b) or both.

This Association might memorialize other organizations like it throughout the country to undertake a similar survey in their own localities.

2. When this data is gathered as fully as possible, it should be tabulated by states and a statement of the findings formulated. On the basis of this statement, a memorial should be sent to the colleges and universities asking them to provide for the minimum requirements for prospective teachers of the social studies, and to recommend only such teachers as have met them creditably. The state departments of education should be memorialized to co-operate in this endeavor to improve the teaching of the social studies in the secondary schools by certificating only such teachers as are adequately prepared—an improvement in which California has set an excellent example in giving no general certificates and demanding five years of preparation.

It is gratifying to know that the old fashioned blanket certificate to teach is under hot fire from many quarters. The evils of this omnibus system are now generally

recognized by educators who do not hesitate to say publicly that it should be replaced by certification in special subjects—preferably one major and one minor subject. This proposal was discussed as early as 1911 by the New England History Teachers' Association and the next year a committee made an excellent report on it, (*History Teacher's Magazine*, January, 1913) suggesting "A Certified Gild of History Teachers" like the Institute of American Architects. The Mississippi Valley Teachers' Association also gave some attention to the problem.

School administrators should also be informed of the results of this survey and asked to appoint only such instructors as can furnish credentials vouching for their competence. The responsibility for good teachers must be divided between the colleges and school administrators. A full report of this action might even be sent to the educational committee of the state legislatures with the request that suitable legislation be passed to insure the success of the project. Surely the law-makers, who have been having fits of hysteria over the un-American teachers and text-books, should be eager to aid in obtaining teachers with adequate preparation. And finally other organizations of the nation like the national association of historians, of political scientists, of economists, of sociologists, and of educators in general should be asked to endorse this effort and to co-operate in its realization.

3. Present teachers of the social studies in both secondary schools and in the institutions of higher learning should be urged to use their best endeavors to remedy the existing deficiency. Prospective teachers should be induced to content themselves with nothing short of the best undergraduate preparation, and if possible follow it by graduate work. Somehow we must develop a greater professional pride in the teachers of the social studies particularly in the secondary schools, and encourage them to perfect professional organizations through which they may protect their financial interest, raise their standards, and become more skilled masters in their work. Why cannot teachers learn a lesson from the physicians, dentists, architects, engineers, and even plumbers? They have efficient state and county and city organizations. They have secured legislation to perfect their interests and to maintain a worthy standard of professional excellence. They have state boards to supervise admission of recruits to their guilds. Is our

profession less important? If colleges and state departments of education refuse to provide for adequately prepared teachers of the social studies, might we not create state boards, legally if possible, unofficially if necessary, to vouch for the fitness of teachers and to act as a clearing house for locating them in positions? If rightly managed, would not teachers be eager to get the endorsement of such a body and would not school administrators find it advantageous to avail themselves of such educational insurance? Certainly if better salaries resulted from such credentials, teachers would strive to secure them.

The difficulties in the way of making the survey I have suggested and of using it to bring about the necessary pressure to get the results desired are mainly two—first inertia and indifference on the part of teachers themselves and secondly the financial outlay involved. As for the first of these obstacles, I am convinced that sufficient interested teachers are available to do the work even though the masses are not. As for the second problem, it seems to me that funds may be obtained from one of several sources: (1) a voluntary collection from the teachers themselves; (2) state appropriations; (3) a federal appropriation; (4) subventions from institutions like the Rockefeller Foundation or the Commonwealth Fund; and (5) men of means interested in the cause of education. But the thing to be borne in mind is that we will have to take the initiative.

ALEXANDER C. FLICK.

A COURSE IN METHODS OF TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

This paper appeared in the *Historical Outlook*, December, 1924.

A course which is designed to make, at least, a faint beginning at preparing History majors at Goucher College to cope with the particular problems which will confront them as teachers of the Social Studies, has now been offered at that institution for three years and may, perhaps, be regarded as having passed its first experimental stage. It is offered as a one-hour course through the two semesters of one academic year, and is recommended to be taken concurrently with a course in the Department of Education, which is devoted to a detailed study of the public secondary school.¹

The course is based upon the idea that while the prospective teachers are having general fundamental principles of educational theory presented to them, they shall at the same time receive from some member of the History Department specific applications of those principles in the field of the subject which they expect to teach, with particular emphasis upon the content of courses of History in the Junior and Senior High School,² and upon problems particularly related to History, such as the acquisition and use of a History library, source-books, and map work. Such brief courses are being offered in several of the departments of this institution in subjects which are included in the curriculum of the high school; namely, in Chemistry, French, and Spanish, as well as in History³.

¹The writer hastens to disclaim all credit for the idea of a single-uni-course, focusing particularly upon subject content. It originated with Dr. Agnes Rogers, formerly Head of the Department of Education at Goucher College and now at Smith College. It was at her request that the writer worked out the course in History along the lines indicated in this paper.

²Emphasis is placed in the course upon the work of the Senior high school for the purely practical reason that up to the present time our students have entered the Senior high school in larger numbers than they have the Junior high school and, therefore, themselves constantly focus attention upon it.

³To answer the query which has probably already arisen in the mind of the reader, as to why such courses are confined to the departments above specified, though they by no means cover the range of high school subjects, it is necessary to state that the laws in Maryland regulating courses in Education are specific and exacting, calling for a minimum of a year's graduate work at a standard college or university on the part of the instructor.

By arrangement with the Department of Education—and the two departments have worked in the closest co-operation and harmony in connection with this course—certain subjects are entirely omitted from the course as given in the History Department in order to avoid duplication or any loss of the students' time. It is conceived, for instance, that the question of standardized tests, the essentials of good questioning, and wise discipline rest upon basic principles and are, therefore, adequately disposed of once and for all in the regular course in Education already alluded to as given in connection with these departmental courses.

The plan, as originally conceived, was for a one-hour course for but one semester, but because of the special training in Political Science of the member of the History Department who was asked to offer the course, and because there happens to be no one in the former department qualified under the Maryland law to offer such a course in the Department of Political Science, it is being presented as a one-hour course in the *Social Studies* throughout the academic year.

In a course which may claim but one hour a week, attempting to deal with as many and as complex problems as are presented in the field of the Social Studies, it is obvious that the program must be most carefully formulated. As it has finally been worked out, it stands as follows:¹

I. Purpose of History Study: the aims.

II. The History Program in High Schools.

Recent changes, suggestions of the *New Committee*, and the program in the high school from which each member of the class comes are presented. The programs in Baltimore and in Maryland are studied. It is of special importance that the students shall know the program in this city, as all the observation of teaching must be done here. That of the state is equally important, as many of our graduates teach in the state.

III. The Content of the Courses.

1. Ancient History.
2. Medieval and Modern History.
3. English History.
4. American History.

¹The program as given does not show the exact allocation of time. Each fall before the opening of the academic year, it is necessary to go over it, calendar in hand, in order to allow for time lost through vacations and examinations, in order to insure the consideration of each subject according to its relative importance.

More time is allowed for the consideration of this subject than would appear likely from this plan. In each field the students work out the subject under ten to twelve main headings and then work out the chief sub-divisions under each main head.¹ The two fields which appear in all high schools, Medieval and Modern History and American History, receive a larger allotment of time than the other two, but it is necessary to work it out for Ancient History, as a number of the schools, particularly the smaller ones, as still accord it a place.² In all fields, the thought of History in terms of development, in terms of the onward sweep of change and progress, is stressed.

IV. Choice of textbooks.

Criteria for judgment, the importance of wise choices, and the dangers of unwise choices are noted. Familiarity is acquired with the reliable texts in each field.

V. Methods of teaching History.

1. The lecture. A limited use of this method in the form of simple talks is recommended only to illuminate or clarify.

2. Textbook method. This method with its accompanying outlines and its many variations is thoroughly thrashed over. The student is warned against becoming a mere hearer of lessons.

3. Source method. The class, which in the writer's experience seldom produces one member who has been trained in this method, is set at a problem in Fling and Caldwell as an introduction to this method and then a decision is reached as to its availability for the high school classroom.

4. The topical method in its various forms and combinations comes up for due consideration.

5. The project-problem method requires explanation and illustration. The great advantage of the correlative course in the Education Department is here at once apparent, for it is difficult for the students who are not taking the course in Education in the Public Secondary School (and there are always some) to grasp this not altogether simple method.

¹As illustrative of the work on content, the following arrangement of the field of English History into ten main heads is added:

- I. Geographical factors.
- II. Racial elements of the English stock.
- III. The Normans and the formation of a united English Nation.
- IV. Beginning of national consciousness (Hundred Years' War, War of the Roses, the early Tudors).
- V. Age of the renaissance and the reformation.
- VI. Constitutional Struggle against Stuart absolutism.
- VII. Foundation of the British Empire.
- VIII. The industrial revolution and England's role during the Napoleonic era.
- IX. The era to reform and political democracy.
- X. Trend toward social democracy.

²The writer is quite conscious that the new teacher is likely to be presented with a syllabus in which even the allotment of time has been mapped

VI. Teaching pupils to study History. The instructor stresses this phase of the course strongly, as it is one on which she feels deeply from years of sad experience in having to begin her Freshman course with teaching college students how to study History.¹ And it should be recorded here that she emphasizes the necessity of learning some historical facts in opposition to the current trend to deery memory. It is her firm conviction that an irreducible minimum should be thoroughly mastered. Quite aside from the value of the discipline of the memory and the question of character building involved in performing tasks thoroughly instead of superficially, aside from the value of forming the habit of reading with a view to making the content a part of one's mental possession instead of reading merely for atmosphere, the acquisition of a body of historical information is a very valuable asset.

VII. Planning the course and the lesson.

The necessity of preparation, of mapping out the entire course is indicated. The psychological value of visualization through the medium of the blackboard is recognized.² Attention is directed to History as a training of judgment, a schooling in analysis, and a discipline in the solution of problems. The college student, steeped in subject matter, is made to think of her future work as a teaching of pupils, not of subject.

VIII. The History library is considered: initial selections, additions, and the best location of the library, means and methods of securing a library even in the small town with no funds available for books.

IX. The use of primary sources: source books, their use and abuse.

X. Written work: The History note-book, the amount, the taking of notes, the checking of written work by the teacher, analysis of reading, the formation of habits, long and short themes—all are problems which must be dealt with.

XI. Maps and map-making:

out for her, but that fact does not invalidate the value to the student of thinking of syllabi and of syllabus-making against the day when she herself may be drafted from the ranks of experienced teachers to share in their making. Whether or not there is justification for devoting time to the study of all four fields may be an open question, but few will dissent from the study of two of the fields.

¹The writer would not be misunderstood. Certainly in every Freshman group there are a number of students well trained in History by their preparatory work, but she has yet to meet one group with every member of which such training in how to tackle the subject is a work of supererogation.

²The instructor of this course early learned that the chalk mark on the board by challenging another sense than the ear is a wonderful and striking way of recalling the straying attention. She frequently finds herself teaching History through the medium of mathematics, as for instance: Roman blood + Anglo-Saxon blood + French-Norman blood = English blood:

Anglo-Saxon + Latin + French = English.

Anglo-Saxon customary laws + Norman-French courts = English jurisprudence.

This subject involves discussion of suggestions offered in the various texts and articles, difficulties, number of maps to be required in the given courses, amount and character of the detail. A concrete program is formulated and criticized.

XII. Pictorial material: The discussion includes charts, pictures, museums, slides, and postal cards. The question of the desirability and feasibility of a school museum is discussed; the danger of over-stimulation by excess of pictorial material is pointed out.¹

XIII. Current events in the high school.

A critical study of the various weekly and monthly periodicals on the market is made.² The question of whether the work is best done in combination with the daily work or on a separate day set apart for the purpose is considered. Methods of presenting the subject are weighed and the students are urged to try out few methods in a field which offers such vast opportunity for experimentation after they shall have established their right to teach. The problem of how to stimulate high school students to begin to form the habit of reading the daily paper is brought forward.

XIV. The teaching of Civics.

The proper place in the curriculum, the best textbooks, the content of the course, methods, and a comparison of the aims with those in History teaching are noted.

XV. Community Civics.

The rapid growth of interest in this subject, comparison with straight Civics, the aims, the methods, and the texts are subjects of discussion. The well-known definition of Community Civics as the *Art of Good Citizenship* is made a part of the students' vocabulary.

XVI. Problems of American Democracy. An effort is made to determine the content of such a course; the aims are discussed; the adaptation and suitability for secondary school pupils, the material available and the form in which it may be found are considered. The problem of a text or the presentation of the subject matter without a text receives consideration.

XVII. Collateral reading for the courses in Civics.

The paramount necessity of suitability of material is emphasized, the variety and type of material available presented, the amount of reading which may legitimately be asked of Freshmen and of Seniors appraised, and the prospective teacher warned against over-loading. The use of source books and source material, in limited and suitable amount, is encouraged.

XVIII. Laboratory work in the Social Subjects.

¹The whole subject of illustrative material is not pressed so far as the writer would naturally carry it, because the Education Department gives it full attention by fostering an annual exhibit collected by the students.

The instructor finds that she is often able to bring to the attention of the class new publications of merit which have not yet won general attention and can warn them against the specious advertising of other well-known periodicals which she knows by experience do not meet the needs of the classroom.

Field work comes in for liberal discussion : the amount possible, the kind most fertile of results, the question of whether such trips should be made in or out of class time, whether trips should be made in groups with the teacher or independently by the pupil. The necessity for discretion on the part of the teacher is strongly stressed so that her pupils shall not become a nuisance to the community. The opportunity this work presents to lead pupils to *practice* good citizenship is pointed out.

XIX. Conclusion—the Growing teacher.

The work of the year is concluded with a discussion of the historical magazines which the history teacher should take, and the historical associations she should join. ¹ Although the young teacher almost invariably enters her work with high hopes and enthusiasm, it is felt not amiss to prepare her for some of the discouragements and disappointments since the course closes with a note of optimism on the rich compensations which the teaching profession yields.

Certain general considerations appear from a most cursory examination of the program outlined. In the first place, the time is unequally divided between the History and Civics fields, the former receiving the lion's share of the time. But the reasons for such apparent malice aforethought are obvious: the students who elect this course are more likely to teach History than they are to teach the other social subjects; in the next place, the subjects are often linked, the History teacher being forced to present Civics once a week; and, lastly, certain problems common to both subjects, if thoroughly threshed out in connection with History, will require less time when they come up for discussion in connection with *Civics* or *Problems of Democracy*.

This second general consideration is that the History major desiring to complete the study of History problems is forced to elect the course the second semester; she must, willy-nilly, devote, attention to some of the other social studies, though she may be resolved to offer herself only as a teacher of History. The writer frankly admits the fact—and defends it. History teachers are placing themselves on the defensive for themselves and for their subject unless they are conversant and sympathetic with the modern trend in the entire field of the social studies, where the other subjects are treading upon and crowding out History as such.

¹In this connection the instructor takes advantage of her opportunity to point out to the members of the class the rich privilege which is theirs to join local historical associations and to promote interest in the history of the communities where their lot is cast.

Already History is being contracted to two years of required work—half of the time formerly allowed it.

And, thirdly, it is obvious that there must be a burning question of how adequately to discuss so full a program in thirty hours. The writer frankly admits that the course is too packed for the full discussion which she desires of each problem. As soon as feasible, she feels that the course should be given as a two hours course.¹

The instructor strives constantly to make the course as practical as a purely theoretical course can be made. Goucher College is not a normal school; it does not conduct a practice school in conjunction with its Department of Education, as do several of our universities. The closest approach to actual practice which has possible for our History majors² is observation in the high schools of Baltimore City, which is arranged by courtesy of the administration of the city system. A practice followed on a few occasions should, in the judgment of the writer, be continued and developed much further. The instructor of the Education Department in charge of the course already alluded to and the History instructor of this course have accompanied the class to observe some teaching in one of the Baltimore high schools. At a later hour the same day the entire group met again, the instructor in Education criticizing and applying educational principles, the instructor in History criticizing from the point of view of content.³

Furthermore, the instructor approaches each class with the firm purpose to make the work of that day practical, if at all possible.

¹It would be utterly impossible to cover the subjects in an even moderately satisfactory way except for the fact that the class comes at the close of the day, which makes it possible for us to continue ten, fifteen, and even twenty minutes beyond the legitimate end of the hour. The explanation of such remarkable ardor in an undergraduate class lies in the fact that these students confronting the problems of their future work for the first time and hoping for help in their solution are serious—serious and sincere in their work as never before.

²Mathematics majors have in the past secured some actual experience in teaching in the Eastern High School, of Baltimore, thanks to the courtesy of one of the teachers in the department. The writer hopes that a similar arrangement may be possible for History majors.

³It may be of interest to remark in passing that the teacher of the high school class which was observed was also, by her own desire, present to profit by the criticisms.

The following question is uppermost in her mind: "What problems in conjunction with this phase of History teaching bothered me when I was doing my first teaching?" The students are encouraged to bring up for discussion points which occur to them as problems, and out of the instructor's richer background of experience the opportunity is presented of suggesting, at least, some way or ways of solving the problem.

Another way in which the course is made practical is by encouraging the students to apply in this course many principles gathered in allied departments. If ever in any course the principle that a teacher is only a leader of her class needs to be recognized, it is in a course of this type. For the students, far more abreast of modern development—say, in the field of Psychology—than is the instructor, who has not worked in the field for a dozen years, bring in many valuable, practical suggestions which strengthen the course for the succeeding year.¹

To give some idea of the methods pursued in the actual handling of the work, typical assignments may be presented, one selected from the field of History and one from the field of Community Civics. In general, it may be stated that the basis of discussion starts with the books of certain recognized authorities, such as those of Tryon and of Johnson,² and with articles in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, but often proceeds specifically with a number of carefully formulated questions posted in advance on the bulletin board to save class time, to which definite written answers must be prepared.

The method by which the problem of maps and map-making for the History teacher is approached may be regarded as typical. Johnson's chapter on the subject and his general attitude to the question is considered; the practicability of his suggestions for personalizing geography for the high school weighed. Then the class is required to decide upon the number of maps for a given

¹A striking case in point is that of a student who was so interested in and impressed with certain psychological factors, in connection with the physical make-up of the textbook—the proper sort of type, the proper placing of illustrations on the page—that she occasionally bored the class, but never the teacher, to whom she made a real contribution.

²R. M. Tryon, *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools* (Boston, Ginn and Co.); Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools* (New York, Macmillan, 1920).

course and to specify the name of each map—let us say, for Medieval and Modern History.¹ Next, the class tackles the specific problem of map-making: the question of the directions which need to be given to a high school class to insure the maximum of results and the maximum of benefit, the amount of detail desirable, the use of color versus black and white, the lettering, the inclusion of physical features other than the location of cities and countries, and the scale of the map. Later, after full discussion and criticism, the instructor passes out her answer, so to speak, in a mimeographed form, which the members can preserve for future use. The specific directions there suggested are commented on and discussed.²

¹The suggestion for this field on the basis of about one map a month in a three-hour course is for eight maps enumerated in detail later. The writer proceeds on the assumption that the beginning teacher had better err on the side of underloading rather than overloading her program.

²A few examples of the type of directions suggested follow:

Maps to make in Mediaeval and Modern History.

Map No. 1. The Roman empire and the barbarians about 476 A. D.

1. Use outline map of the Mediterranean World.
2. Show location of the following tribes before their migration: Huns, Ostrogoths, Visigoths, Vandals, Burgundians, Lombards, Danes, Jutes, Saxons, and Angles.

3. Show by naming the location of: Kingdom of the Visigoths, Kingdom of the Vandals, Kingdom of the Burgundians, of the Franks, of the Ostrogoths, of Odoacer, and the location after migrating of the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes.

4. Show the Eastern Roman Empire.

Map No. 2. Europe and the Mediterranean World in 814 A. D.

1. Use outline map of the Mediterranean World and Western Europe—double size.

2. Locate by name:

- a. Seas: Mediterranean, Black, Adriatic, North, Baltic, and Aegean.
- b. Cities: Alexandria, Jerusalem, Bagdad, Nicea, Constantinople, Rome, Cordova, Paris, Verdun, and Venice.
- c. Other physical features, such as chief mountains, rivers, and islands.

3. Show in color or otherwise: Eastern Roman Empire, the Frankish Kingdom, the Mohammedan Dominion.

Map No. 3. Medieval Europe, Thirteenth to Fifteenth Century.

Map No. 4. Europe in 1648.

Map No. 5. Europe and her colonies in 1763.

Map No. 6. Europe after the Congress of Vienna.

Map No. 7. Europe at the beginning of the World War in 1914.

Map No. 8. Europe and the World Today.

One of the hours devoted to the consideration of Community Civics may serve as typical of the work during the last third of the course. Naturally, the members of the class must do their own thinking, and no better method of insuring this has yet been worked out by the writer than to force the members to set down their answers to the problems in black and white, to be checked up by the results of the other members of the class before the correct answer is produced by the teacher, if the class fails.¹ The following series of questions have formed the basis for discussion during two class periods:

1. What is the aim of a course in Community Civics? Think it over, note down your answers, and then read a preface to one of the texts, as Hill, etc.
2. Do you feel that such a course is justified? Your reasons?
3. What is the subject content of such a course?
Compare the tables of contents.
 - a. List the subjects common to all texts.
 - b. In a separate list place those found only in one or two texts.
 - c. Would you eliminate any of the subjects? Add any others? Give your reasons.
4. In what year is this course usually taught? Would you place it there? Give reasons for your answer.
5. Is each subject suitable for Freshman development and interest?
6. How does such a course differ from ordinary Civics?
7. Which of the texts would you adopt if given the decision?
8. Examine the syllabus of New York City. Would you use it in preference to a textbook? Reasons? (Read Syllabus, II. pp. 7-9).
9. Would you assign reference reading besides the text? a. What kind?
- b. How much? c. What problem would you meet?
10. Would you attempt field work? a. Just what? b. How much?
11. List any dangers you can foresee in field work. How would you seek to avoid them?

The special assignment which was introduced this year during the second semester, to correspond to the semester paper of our advanced History courses, is probably destined to become a feature of the course for several years in the particular form which it has

¹When the class lacks all background of experience, the instructor frankly and promptly supplies the needed information, and what seems to her the correct solution, for in her judgment, it is as foolish to waste the time of these beginners in teaching by insisting on dragging out from their minds that they cannot contain as it is for teachers of arithmetic to insist on a fourth grade pupil *understanding* and comprehending the multiplication tables before he is allowed to learn them.

assumed. The students lack, as has been noted before, the background of experience which would give pertinence and value to their educational opinion; training in research in theory and in research in historical materials they have received in nearly all their courses in the departments concerned, and so it was conceived that they should be given a task relating them to their community and of service to the profession they are about to enter. It is well known that one of the great needs of historians is an adequate guide to the location of the existing historical survivals in any given locality. Hence, the class was set at the task of beginning the preparation of a guide to the historical sites and objects available in Baltimore,¹ each being assigned a special place, as the Johns Hopkins University, Peabody Institute, with its old manuscripts, paintings, and statuary; Maryland Historical Society, Maryland Institute, and others. The word *beginning* was used advisedly, for if this piece of work is ultimately to bear fruit and be published as a pamphlet worthy to be placed in the hands of our confrères of the guild in Baltimore, there is still much work to be done, but an interesting beginning by an interested class has been made.

As is natural, the value of such a course in methods of teaching History works both ways: it should help the students and it should help the Department. The writer has become convinced that it is worth while to offer such a course in every college. It assures that one member, at least, will keep in touch with movements in the secondary schools and will serve as a liaison officer. She will become acquainted with members of high school History departments, will establish contacts so that a ready door of communication is open. In the next place, she should bring new suggestions in teaching to the college department. It is notorious that some of our poorest teaching is done in colleges and universities. In the secondary schools new devices are being constantly worked out, which are often found applicable to college teaching. Such a liaison officer is bound, in the nature of things, to try them out in

¹Reference is had not only to well-known locations, such as the burial place of Edgar Allen Poe in Westminster Church yard, but to the copies of significant paintings, casts of famous works of classic art, colonial doorways, Napoleonic relics, illuminated manuscripts, survivals and sites of landmarks of pre-Civil War days, etc.

her classes, and, if they prove valuable, they will soon communicate themselves to the other members of the department.¹

In the last analysis the test of this course, as of any, is the hard crucible of experience: its actual value to the teacher when she is teaching. The instructor cannot hope to turn out trained teachers, trained solely on theory; she recognizes that the best technique in the world will not insure a good teacher, even from a practice school; she recognizes the fact that a teacher might break every law in the educational decalogue and yet do some good teaching; and yet there can scarcely fail to be some value in such a course properly conducted. It is particularly desirable in such highly complex departments as those of the Social Studies directed to the end of democratic citizenship. Here the mass of material is so great as to be almost appalling to the new teacher, grappling with it for the first time from the point of view of presenting it intelligibly to younger minds; here the methods are varied almost in proportion to the number of teachers; here our very aims seem to be in a state of flux. Therefore, guidance to the prospective teacher would seem to have a special claim for consideration. And so the writer dreams of a course which shall save new History teachers from some pit-falls, which shall serve principals and heads of departments by taking off the worst edge of rawness from new recruits, which shall furnish students with some criteria by which to judge their work, and which shall implant in them some degree of confidence that they are facing in the direction mapped out by our best teaching judgment.

ELLA LONN.

¹By way of illustration, it might be added that the writer has been trying out some of the new types of tests and has been stimulated to devise some of her own. During an absence, one such set came under the eye of a colleague, who forthwith appropriated it for an impending test with a class of her own to the great joy of the writer.

DISCUSSION OF THE PAPERS OF DR. FLICK AND DR. LONN

In discussing methods of teaching the social studies in the secondary schools and of adequate training for the teachers of those subjects, we must first be sure that we have definitely in mind the object of the social studies. Briefly stated, it is to train in citizenship—in group relationships. We must further keep in mind that the contribution of history is to show us how man has slowly, gradually learned to lead the group life, to co-operate with his fellows; and that the contribution of the social sciences is to show us how man is now leading the group life in the various organizations he has set up—home, school, church, shop, state.

The foundation for this training in citizenship must, of course, be laid in the elementary grades, and courses to that end have been formulated and are now in fairly successful operation.

Coming now to the secondary school, our first discovery is that the report of the Committee of Seven—which back in the nineties placed history on a pedestal from which it has never been shaken—is now obsolete except for those secondary schools whose main business it is to send their pupils through a “needle’s eye” of college entrance requirement.

Our public high schools generally are discovering that four years of continuous history is a very one sided program in the social studies; and that history and social science need to be evenly balanced in order to secure the best type of citizenship training. We who feel responsible for the training of our young people have decided to build our courses of study from the bottom up and not from the top down, believing that in this way we can better train them in power, initiative, interest, and social viewpoint.

Now as to the social studies program for the junior-senior high school, we find that the newer courses of study keep history and social science nicely balanced with approximately three years of each. The social science part of this program has already been placed on a problem-solving basis. For example, in Community Civics we find such topics as Health, Protection of Life and Property, Education, Recreation, Community Planning, etc.

The next step would seem to be to put history also squarely on the problem-solving basis. This does not mean that we are to

do away with the narrative of history but rather that we are to have the story touch only the high spots of history, and that we shall learn how to punctuate the narrative with problems for solution.

Just what do we mean by the problem-solving method in the teaching of history? Is it not to orient our pupils, to carry them back to a point prior to the problem to be attacked so that they may look ahead at the problem and not back upon it as we ordinarily do?

Another caution for our historical surveys, whether European or American, is that we must carry our young people rapidly through the story so that they may both *see* and *feel* progress. In the name of scholarship and thoroughness we have "made haste so slowly" that our boys and girls have become wearied with details, and have gotten neither perspective on the road they have travelled nor inspiration to travel further. Moreover, we must make history dramatic and picturesque if we would catch and hold the genuine interest of our pupils. Without this interest, as we all know, there can be no real educational progress.

It goes without saying that our social science should be on a problem solving basis and for two reasons: first, that our young citizens may be trained to investigate, to reason, to judge, and when occasion offers, to act; second, that as an important by-product, we shall lay the foundation of the social sciences—economics, political science, and sociology. That both these aims can be reached in fair degree has been demonstrated by those well trained teachers who have gone at the matter with interest and enthusiasm.

So much for the courses of study themselves. Now as to the training that will help to fit teachers for the work. It is a conservative statement to make that no teacher is really competent to conduct high school classes in the social studies who has not had courses of college grade in European and American history and in each of the social sciences. Besides these, there should be some well thought out courses in method and technique together with demonstration and research work for teachers. Our normal schools and our university schools of education are sensing the importance of this sort of practical training for teachers. Well known examples are the work of Dr. Hatch at the Horace Mann School, of Drs.

Rugg and Knowlton at the Lincoln School, and of Dr. Hill and Mr. Kimmel at the Chicago University High School.

Pennsylvania has probably been one of the leaders in insisting upon certain minimum requirements for secondary school teaching. The Department of Public Instruction insists upon a minimum of twelve semester hours as a prerequisite to teaching any high school subject. The Department realizes that this is a relatively low standard and is looking forward to the time when it can be raised. In Philadelphia all candidates for high school positions must pass rather rigid examinations in method and subject matter as well as a personality test which discloses much that the high school principals want to know. Other cities in Pennsylvania are working along the same lines.

At State College the new School of Education is insisting that no student shall be graduated without having completed thirty semester hours in the major subject. Of course, other schools of education, both within and without the state, have similar requirements. In our Pennsylvania State Normal Schools twelve courses in content and method have been planned by a committee of social studies teachers for what is known as Group III, namely, those students who are fitting themselves to teach in the junior high schools. Some of these courses are required, others are elective; but the interesting thing about it is that as fast as the teaching force will permit, practically all these courses are being incorporated in the curriculum. It may be of interest also to know that steps have already been taken which will eventually lead to the raising of the Pennsylvania State Normal Schools to the rank of four year teachers colleges. Of course, it will then be possible to approximate the standards set by our leading university schools of education.

J. LYNN BARNARD

THE TEACHER OF HISTORY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Nearly every member of this Association has a more or less direct interest in the teaching of history in secondary schools. Besides those of us who are devoting our lives to that work, the Association contains college professors, most of whom have working under their guidance students who are planning to become teachers of history in secondary schools. It has seemed to me, therefore, that the best use that I can make of the short annual address that you have come to expect from each of your presiding officers is to speak to you, from my own experience as a teacher and supervisor, of the attractions that our field of work offers to young men and women of college training, and of some of the qualities essential to a reasonable amount of success in that work.

For the college student specializing in history with the intention of teaching it, the first decision to be made is whether he will aim at secondary or college work. In order that this preparation for his chosen field may be as effective as his ability and his circumstances permit him to make it, I believe that this decision should be made as early as possible because of the fact that, at present at any rate, the same preparation is not, in my opinion, equally valuable to satisfy the demands of each of the two fields. Leaving aside for the moment arguments in support of this statement, let us consider what advice we should give to the young student who comes to us in doubt as to which of the two fields to choose. It seems to me that the deciding factor in reaching a decision here is whether the deep, abiding interest of the student is primarily in history as a body of knowledge or whether it is in the possible use of history as a means of developing boys and girls into useful, thinking citizens. Each of these interests, the pursuit of truth and the desire to make function in the lives of boys and girls what truth is already known, is worthy of the best in us; few of us have the energy to be successful in both fields and for that reason most men and women choose either the one field or the other and stick to it.

If, then, a student comes to you with enthusiasm for history and if you feel assured that there is combined with it an enthusiasm for the study of the workings of the minds of boys and girls, a genuine liking for adolescents, you are fairly safe in giving your approval to the choice of the secondary field. If with the enthu-

siasm for history you find a liking, not so much for adolescents as for young men and women of college age, there is a possibility that you have before you one who may never contribute directly much of value to American scholarship but who, by his enthusiasm for both history and the minds of young men and women, may become a great college teacher whose influence will be felt years after his work has been done, although no book may bear his name. And there is, too, the possibility that he may be one of more gifted souls who will become a leader both in teaching and in research: if so, be humbly thankful that you are to have a part in developing him. If, however, you are convinced that the student seeking your advice is primarily a scholar, with little or no interest in the workings of the human mind, find for him a place if you can in conducting certain courses in research where his profound scholarship may be of use and where his lack of interest in his younger fellow beings may do as little harm as possible. To those of you from the colleges who are members of this Association and by that membership signify that you are interested in making history vital to boys and girls and young men and women, to you there is little need to emphasize a fact that we all know, that there are on the staffs of our colleges and universities today men and women who are scholars and nothing else and who should be kept away as much as possible from all students but those whose thirst for history is so unquenchable that even they cannot hurt them. To make sure that these men and women do the work best fitted for them, we need, I feel, somewhat closer supervision than we now have of the teaching force in our colleges. You men and women of fine scholarship who hold professorships and who have the gift of arousing enthusiasm in young hearts should have more power than you now have to limit the possibilities for harm of a few of your colleagues.

To one who is fitted for the work of teaching history in secondary schools it is a privilege and a delight. It has its drawbacks, of course, perhaps the chief one being the drain upon his time and energy of the necessity of frequent meetings with many pupils, so that the close of the day and of the year ordinarily finds him too tired for creative work. This drawback must be made clear to the student seeking advice and he must be reminded that unless he is satisfied to renounce productive scholarship to any considerable degree in favor of personal influence on the minds of growing

boys and girls, he does not belong in the secondary field. This renunciation of productive scholarship is a great one, for it is certainly one of the most worthy passions of our race to advance the cause of truth. But in its place the secondary teacher has the great privilege of helping the adolescent mind find its place in the world of time and space; and the years from fourteen to eighteen are years of a significance in the growth of the individual not, I think, equalled by the four years that follow.

In spite of improvements in the curricula of some of our elementary schools, most of our pupils come to us in the secondary schools with the vaguest sort of conception of that part of the story of man's progress that lies back of the present hour. Judging from examination results, some of their conceptions are still pretty vague when they leave us, which may be partly our fault or partly the result of something long known to us all, but to which we have only recently given a scientific name—"a low I. Q." Clearing up these vague conceptions of the past has its humorous as well as its interesting side. From the second year boys, one of whom wrote in an examination paper that I read that "After the civil wars in Rome, the streets were no longer paved with blood but with the smiling faces of the people", and another who is reported to have said that "Martin Luther did not die a natural death but was excommunicated by a bull", to the senior who wrote in one of my own examinations that "16 to 1" meant that "at the beginning of the Civil War the North was so confident of winning that they bet 16 to 1 on the result," we get misconceptions that lighten for us the burden of reading examination papers. And from the brighter boys and girls, too, we get unexpected replies. A man whom the older members of this Association will remember with pleasure, Dr. Arthur M. Wolfson, now a successful business man instead of the successful and inspiring teacher he was for many years, once asked a class "What have the various unions in the A. F. of L. in common? What, for instance, has a barbers' union in common with a carpenters' union?" and got the unexpected reply, "Shavings!" Yes, the mind of the adolescent boy or girl is intensely interesting to those who have the capacity to love them and those whose sense of humor is sufficiently great to appreciate jokes on them and on himself.

As for other qualities needed of the teacher of history in secondary schools, I want to quote from a report made a year ago by four

of us teachers who were appointed to investigate the teaching of history in the high schools of New York City. We were all teachers in New York high schools, not trained investigators, and the most important thing we did in that report was to tell what, in our opinion, constituted the difference between good and bad teaching as we saw it during the week allotted to us for visiting. We saw about seventy teachers at work and the impression that the good teachers made upon us is perhaps as good a picture as I can give you of what one kind of secondary school teacher actually does in the classroom. I quote from the report:

"The first point that impressed each of us in the work of the good teachers we saw was that the teacher knew definitely what he (the "he" is purely grammatical; we saw more women teachers than men) had done with the class the day before, what he intended to do that day, and what he wanted to do the following day. In carrying out his plan, he saw to it that the pupils knew clearly what they were to do in preparation for the class discussion of the following day; and his personality and methods were such that, without any scolding or threatening on his part, he found his pupils were prepared on the work he had assigned the day before. The result was a lesson full of snap and vigor, moving steadily along toward a definite goal.

"Whenever we judged the recitation to be a good one, we found that the teacher seemed to be enjoying his work and his class. While the preparation of his pupils was superior to that of classes of poor or average teachers, this excellence of preparation seemed to be taken as a matter of course, and to come from the fact that a thorough understanding between teacher and class had evidently been reached by this tenth week of the term. When in individual cases good preparation on the part of the pupil was found lacking, a mild friendly reproof, all the more effective because of its friendliness, was all that was given. That this was not due to the presence of a visitor is shown by the fact that this sympathetic attitude was not always in evidence in the case of poor or average teachers. The conclusion seems valid that if a teacher cannot ordinarily establish friendly relations with his class after some weeks of work together, and at the same time succeed in getting from the class thoroughly good preparation for each day's work, that teacher is not of the highest type. We appreciate, of course, the difficulties that confront a good teacher in a school where the general tone of the school works against good scholarship, or in a class in which the average of general intelligence is very low. In general, however, most boys and girls are willing to work hard if they have the right kind of teachers.

"One reason for this willingness of pupil to work for a good teacher is that with such a teacher a recitation in history is an interesting event. The good teachers that we saw were constantly putting their pupils on their mettle: 'How do you prove your point?' 'Open your book and back up the statement you just made if you can.' 'I don't see why they wanted a strong, central

government just because they were Northerners,' 'Why did the British attempt to come through New Orleans?' are actual questions heard in good recitations in the course of these visits, and they could be multiplied many times.

"The good teacher is resourceful in questions and devices. One teacher visited was trying to make clear to his pupils the hindrances to trade existing in France before the Revolution. He chose the method of contrast with the United States today, not by telling his pupils anything, but by beginning with this question: 'If you were to go from New York to San Francisco today, what evidences of unity would you find?' and then continued to develop his point by asking them to make an imaginary journey through mid-18th Century France. Another, to illustrate the dispute between Maryland and Virginia that led to the calling of the Annapolis convention, sketched on the black-board in a few seconds a rough outline map of the Potomac and Chesapeake Bay, so that the class quickly grasped the point at issue. Another, to illustrate the feelings of New England at the time of the Hartford Convention, said, referring to the native states of the Presidents up to that time: "Twenty-four years of Virginia and four of Massachusetts; now do you understand how the New Englanders felt?"

"Constantly in good recitations we heard from the teacher 'Why?' 'How', 'I don't see it.' all in the friendliest tone. Cross-questioning was frequent, not only to make sure that the pupil understood what he was talking about, but also to give him the opportunity of expressing himself 'not so that he *might* but so that he *must* be understood.' Thought-provoking questions came frequently. 'In which country, Great Britain or the United States have the people greater control of the legislative body?' was one such question, which demanded an exact knowledge of the facts of the lesson but forced the pupil to put them into a new relationship."

You will notice that this account is in no sense an attempt to describe ideal methods of history teaching; but it may have value as an account of what was actually being done by teachers who had made no special preparation for our visits.

Concerning the preparation needed for the work of teaching history in the secondary field in so far as the study of history is concerned, I believe that every secondary teacher will agree that while training in research is necessary to give an adequate conception of what sound historical scholarship really means, breadth rather than depth of scholarship is what we need most. A high school teacher of my acquaintance, who took his Ph. D. degree at a prominent university a few years ago, told me that the highly specialized work in connection with his thesis was, in its effect upon his fitness for his life work, not worth the time spent on it and that he regretted having taken the degree. The Dean of Columbia is

reported to have said recently that specialization has gone too far in our college work and that college students must be made to see more than their own narrow fields. Without sacrificing thoroughness and genuine scholarship, is it going to be possible to provide graduate work beyond that required for the master's degree and terminating in a higher degree for men and women who seek breadth of scholarship but who do not intend to become directors of research work? It is a question for our universities to decide whether some such degree is worth while and whether it can be established without destroying the high standards of work in our graduate schools.

Meanwhile, the student preparing for the teaching of history in our secondary schools must realize that his work cannot stop with universities and cannot stop with books, but must extend to vital contacts with life as it is being lived from day to day. Newspapers, magazines, and, above all, contact with worth while men and women, outside of the teaching profession as well as in it, are essential to the teacher who wishes to make his work vital to the boys and girls who come into his class-room, for he must have not only a keen sense of what is vital, but how to make it seem vital to boys and girls. If we are to solve satisfactorily our social problems, it must be by straight thinking about facts. It is the privilege of the teacher of history in secondary schools to reach large numbers of future voters and to use his skill in giving them some conception of what is meant by evidence and at least the beginnings of reasoning about social facts.

And just because history deals primarily with what has happened, because it rests upon a very substantial basis of fact instead of theory, it seems to me that we teachers of history are in the best position of all the teachers of the social sciences to give training in the elements of thinking along social lines. We have perhaps more opportunity than any of our colleagues to check up the results of our pupils' thinking. We are able to give the training in the elementary work needed by the social engineers of the future. Few subjects touch life at more points than history and to those who enjoying studying and helping this race of ours in its striving to bring about a finer humanity, I commend the teaching of history to adolescent boys and girls. It challenges the best in us and is a work of joy tempered only by the sense of our own insufficiency.

F. E. MOYER.

HISTORY AND TRAVEL

The way of mankind is a long road stretching back into infinity and reaching out into another infinity. Each of us is suddenly put down in the midst of this great highway, without any choice in the matter, and compelled to walk, run, jump, or stagger along a small portion of it. The historian is an eccentric person who is curious about the long and winding road that lies behind and is always trying to find out more and more about its strange sinuosities and the people who have made their little journeys in it. If he is a bit philosophical in his business, he is likely to wonder where the course leads and who will walk therein after all men and nations now living are dead and gone. This is a hazardous enterprise, to be undertaken lightly only by persons with fixed investments. It is a perilous thing to stare down the beckoning vistas of the distant future and fail to see the great god-of-things-as-they-are sitting at the end as benign and serene as the great Buddha of Kamakura. School boards and college trustees are dreadfully suspicious of those who wonder and wonder about the long, long road! There is a growing determination in this country especially among people who know no history to plot the highway of the past arbitrarily through chosen meadows and valleys up to the living and perfect present as they see it through rosy spectacles. To use an example, the sons and daughters of this sect would have us believe that the American revolution was a Sunday-school picnic, organized by the friends of law and order, for the purpose of restraining the British Government within the limits of a constitution founded on all the rights and liberties that mankind dares to think about without committing carnal sin.

Among the various branches of literature and types of experience which throw light upon this darksome road mantled behind and before us there is one which, it seems to me, has never been sufficiently appreciated by students of history. I refer to travel—travel recorded in books open to us at the great libraries and travel on sea and land made available to us by the triumphs of modern technology. Of course it would be wrong to convey the impression that travel has been utterly neglected by history teachers and historians. The labors of Richard Hakluyt, three centuries in his grave, must not be forgotten, nor the labors of our former colleague,

Reuben Thwaite's, passed over without a sign of affectionate respect. From the John Carter Brown Library in Providence and the Pratt Library in Baltimore to the Bancroft Library in California many discriminating workers are preparing bibliographies, manuscripts, and new editions for us. The wise editors of the Cambridge *History of American Literature* give a large space in their bibliographic treasury to works of travel, and only a few weeks ago Mr. Allen Nevins did us all an immense service by giving us a record of American Social History as drawn from the works of the most enlightened British travellers. For all these things and many others, thanks. Moreover, the stream of new books on contemporary travel pours unceasingly from the rolling presses. Mrs. Asquith lectures to us for a consideration and writes about us for a consideration. A young Japanese traveller, Mr. Yusuke Tsurumi, brings out in Tokyo *A Tale of Three Cities*—New York, London, and Paris—in which we may see ourselves through Oriental eyes. Mr. Mencken reviews for us in the April number of "The American Mercury" five books on the United States from German pens.

However it is not my appointed task to summarize the materials now at hand for the services of history, but rather to suggest some reflections on the nature and uses of travel as record and as experience. And I shall arrange these remarks under two questions. What does travel mean to the historical student? What services can history render to the traveller?

A few things ought to be said, however, by way of a preface on certain psychological aspects of the subject. All travellers are not alike; they are not cameras recording faithfully and without bias the things that come within their range. Travellers, like all other human beings, see what is behind their eyes. There are of course a few mere observers, impelled by curiosity, to seek new ideas and new knowledge without ulterior motives. The less important they are, perhaps, the more valuable their recorded experience. But nearly all the great travellers whose books are the most highly prized have been persons of decided opinions, persons who have taken part in political, religious, and economic battles in their own country and have gone abroad in search of materials to confirm convictions they have already formed, to refute opponents, to confound enemies. It is a matter of common knowledge, supported by the mass of detail assembled by Buckle, that most of the outstanding

figures among the French philosophers of the eighteenth century travelled in England and found there nearly all the great weapons which they used with such deadly effect in their warfare on the old regime at home. Voltaire found liberty in England and gave us his witty letters on the English. One of the most curious illusions of the English speaking people, namely, that the powers of government can be divided into legislative, executive, and judicial, is the product of a similar process. It is supposed to have been derived by Montesquieu from his study of the English constitution, but of course as every school child knows now there was not in Montesquieu's time and never has been such a separation of governmental functions. How did Montesquieu get the idea? The story is simple. He was himself a member of the *Parlement* of Paris, a judicial body which had often come into bitter conflict with the King of France. Out of his personal experience, he came to the conclusion that things would be better for himself and his colleagues and thus for France, if courts of law were independent of the executive and legislative power. On looking across the English channel he saw the mirage of his great desire, and solemnly recorded it as if he were telling about some established scientific fact. And students took him seriously. Politicians accepted him for other reasons. De Tocqueville's *Democracy in America*, indispensable as it is for the study of our Jacksonian epoch, is even more useful as a contribution to the forces of ferment which caused the upheaval of 1848 across the Atlantic. More recently, the Hon. Bertrand Russell, a disillusioned radical, weary of the wars and hatreds of Europe, with its slums and monotonous mechanisms, found solace for his soul in China—the fabulous utopia of his imagination. In reality, however, his writings on that extraordinary people are more useful as contributions to post-war European psychology than to the history and culture of China.

There is of course the other side of the shield. Probably as many travellers look abroad for horrible examples to prove their points as go in search of confirmations of their preconceptions. Many an English traveller in America during the early nineteenth century was not studying the civilization of the United States at all but seeking arguments against the Reform Bill, Catholic Emancipation, Church Disestablishment, and universal education. For example, Captain Marryat, a rather supercilious English

novelist, almost forgotten, gave to the world in 1839 his voluminous *Diary in America, with Remarks on Its Institutions*, with the avowed object of doing all the damage he could to the rising and inevitable democracy of his own country. Another bold Briton, Captain Thomas Hamilton, found American precedents quoted in Parliament in support of reform proposals, and was shocked to learn that "the drivellers who uttered such nonsense . . . were listened to with patience and approbation by men as ignorant as themselves;" thereupon he set sail for the United States to collect materials for a book on American institutions. No small part of the ill-will stirred up by English travellers in America springs from the efforts of these partisans to whack their opponents at home on the head with American arguments. As conservatives usually have more money to indulge in travel so it happened that early critics of American democracy were ladies and gentlemen of Tory disposition. They came to America to find good reasons why the established order in church and state and the God-ordained subordination of classes in the British Islands should not be changed. They found their arguments; damage was done to international comity.

On the other hand let us not forget the damage done to America by our princely globe trotters, concerning many of whom nothing can be said except that they are rich and ignorant. They know nothing about American history, European history, or Oriental history. Probably their immediate ancestors washed their faces in a tin pan at the back door and wiped them on a crash towel hung on a roller. They could not tell to save their lives how many towns in the United States with 50,000 inhabitants have sewers, or when Baltimore completed its sewer system, or whether all cities of more than 10,000 inhabitants have sewers to-day. But if they fail to find Ritz and Biltmore accommodations in an inland city of China or a historic village of Italy, they dispose of the whole civilization with a Babbittarian flourish! From Olympian heights of bath tubs, listerine, and daily dozens they look down upon the literature, art, and religion of peoples whose ancestors were civilized when the ancestors of Mr. and Mrs. Goldgad were hanging in the trees of North Germany. I may be pardoned a personal illustration. Mrs. Beard, after trying to pacify an enraged round-the-world lady in Tokyo who berated the Japanese government for not furnishing English telephone books and English operators, gave up the Hercu-

lean task and proposed to amend the law imposing a literacy test on immigrants by a provision placing a still higher test on emigrants. Those who reckon all life in terms of hot-water-at-the-faucet find with the English humorist that there is nothing like travel to narrow the mind.

With these few warnings for those who study travel and those who travel to study, I shall venture upon the main theme. What does travel mean to the historical student? Let us take first the written word in relation to the history of the United States. Our materials are voluminous, and thanks to many bibliographies and reprints, the supply available to those within reach of good libraries is large enough to meet the requirements of the most ardent spirit. There is hardly a capital figure in American history, a great event, an institution, a custom, or a topographical scene that is not to be found described somewhere in the records of travel. For every epoch since 1789, as Mr. Nevins shows in his excellent anthology already cited, there is a special collection at hand. Moreover, no small part of this literature is from the pens of men and women of genuine literary merit, far superior as a rule to the professional historian. Harriet Martineau, Dickens, Matthew Arnold, and Wells are among the foreign observers who have recorded their impressions.

There is no corner of historical imagination which travel does not illuminate. Do you wish, for example, to restore to your eye the Old Northwest Territory during the opening years of the Nineteenth Century? Then a few hours with Timothy Flint's *Recollections of Ten Years* and his *Condensed Geography and History of the Western States* will serve you better than all the modern historical works from A to Z. It is possible by a judicious selection of pages to reconstruct through the mind of a traveller every stage upon which the dramas of our history, large or small, have been played. We can see the banks of the James River as they appeared to the eagle eye of the first settlers, the gray rolling waters beating on the shores of Plymouth, the Mississippi flooding down to the Gulf in the piping days of Thomas Jefferson, the somber forests of Indiana pierced by clearings in the era of John Quincy Adams, the wide reaches from St. Louis to the Coast beheld by Lewis and Clark, and the plain, desert, and mountain as they unrolled before the Patties breaking the path to the Californias. If

we had among us a Gibbon to draw pictures of the American scenes such as he drew of Constantinople, we should have a rich background for our history.

Do you wish to lift the curtain and once more see George Washington face to face? I do not mean the austere gentleman who looks down upon us from the walls of so many galleries; I mean the Virginia planter who thought no service to his country too great or too arduous? Then take John Bernard's *Retrospections of America*, 1797-1811, and read the account of how Washington and the traveller helped a luckless driver right his coach on a Virginia road and then sat down for a friendly chat over "refreshments" in the parlor at Mt. Vernon with "the noble range of the Potomac", visible through the windows. Would you like a vivid glimpse of Andrew Jackson, Webster, Marshall, Story, Calhoun, and all the heroic figures of that extraordinary age? Then spend an hour or two with Harriet Martineau's *Retrospect of Western Travel*. Here are a few lines describing Chief Justice Marshall "How delighted we were to see Judge Story bring in the tall, majestic, bright-eyed old man; old by chronology, by the lines on his composed face, and by his services to the republic; but so dignified, so fresh to the present time, that no feeling of compassionate consideration for age dared to mix with the contemplation of him. The most animated moment of our conversation was when I told him that I was going to visit Mr. Madison on leaving Washington. He instantly sat up in his chair and with beaming eyes began to praise Mr. Madison. Madison received the mention of Marshall's name in just the same manner; yet these men were strongly opposed in politics."

Would you have a view of Lincoln by one who was neither friend nor foe in politics? Then read the fascinating pages by the famous English war correspondent, William Howard Russell, to be found in *My Diary North and South*, written in 1861. It would be a service to the teaching profession if some one would make available in a small volume some of the choice passages of this *Diary* so full of scene, portraiture, and color.

Equally useful for the manners and customs of the nation at various epochs are the records of the successive travellers. In Dickens' letters we can see the author of *Nicholas Nickleby* in every part of the country and riding on every kind of a conveyance. We

see him standing on the deck of a canal boat, fishing dirty water out of the river in a tin ladle, pouring it into a tin pan, and taking his morning scrub with a jack towel. We can go below with him into a tiny cabin, no larger than an expensive suite on a modern liner, fitted up with bunks for twenty-eight passengers at night and serving as a dining room, bar, and lounge room by day. Through his eyes we can see his twenty-seven fellow passengers with yellow streams trickling down their chins. A hundred accounts of slavery give us a composite view of that institution which defies both abolition indictment and southern defence. The state of letters, the character of the press, lynch law, the theatre, the legislative bodies, the government of cities, prisons, asylums, home life, colleges, universities, child labor, politics, farms, factories, cowboys, miners, immigrants—everything that the student of history looks for in the past is to be found in the pages of our travel books. Nor must we forget that the first person to tell us how we were actually governed and explode the traditions of the schoolbooks was an Englishman, James Bryce. In short one can find in the pages of our travel books the celebrities of every period and American civilization at every stage in its development. It is not a substitute for history based upon ordinary sources, but it furnishes elements of criticism, perspective, detachment, and literary form which enliven the narrative, give vividness to description, and a juster balance to every scene.

In passing from travel records to travel experience, we move to a theme which is, so often discussed that little remains to be said upon it. Every history teacher knows what it means to tramp over Paul Revere's route, to look upon the lordly Potomac from Washington's veranda, to spend delightful hours in old London, to stroll along Addison's Walk, to wander about in Versailles where Louis XIV and his court played their roles, to stand where Caesar fell, to trudge the dusty Appian Way, and to descend into the Catacombs, to stand before the tomb of Iyeyasu, to dream where Confucius taught, or look upon the winding course of the Great Wall that breakwater against Tartar floods begun two hundred years before the Christian era. It is not necessary here to dwell upon this aspect of travel in its relation to the understanding of history.

But there is one phase of this subject that is not so often analyzed or so widely comprehended, namely, the possibility of seeing for ourselves somewhere in some corner of the earth humanity in every stage of social evolution. By visiting and chaffering with the head hunters of Formosa, living in their thatched huts in the dense forests of the far interior, one can illuminate in a blaze of light the pages of Tacitus which describe the Germania of his age. A thousand illustrations can readily be summoned by the imagination. Nor must it be thought that one must make long journeys to far-off countries to see the remote past living again. In the mountain coves of the Appalachians we can see the pioneers of the seventeenth century and be singed again by the burning brimstone of the eighteenth century revivalists. In the adobi huts of the Hopi Indians one can see with the eye of reality a hundred things which Cooper saw with the eye of the imagination. All the centuries of the past—the habits, ideas, and dreams of ten thousand years—still live and are yet to be found somewhere clothed in flesh and blood.

Of the service of history to the traveller it is not necessary to speak at length here. I do not refer to the routinier who does the Scottish lakes, the cathedral towns, the Old Curiosity Shop, Westminster Abbey, the tomb of Napoleon, and the Pantheon. I mean the more serious traveller who does not wish to augment his collection of ideas that are not true, but really desires to understand the life and spirit of other countries, to comprehend the soul of people who have other values and other concepts of human worth and destiny. As by travel we can behold history in the making, so by history we can prepare to wring the secret from travel. No one who has never spent a few months in an American village of fifteen hundred people or on an American farm, has any business taking a tramp through the countryside of France or Germany or Italy or Japan. Equally imperative for a correct appreciation of things seen is the information gained from the long study of history. There is not a scene to be visited, there is not a snatch of conversation picked up on ship board or in a railway train which cannot be illuminated by historical knowledge. When we know that our not remote ancestors did things which we now vehemently condemn in other nations, it helps us to understand—and to curb the criticism that arises unbidden to our lips.

I shall close by giving one illustration of this truth. On a Pacific liner I heard an American merchant roundly damn the whole Japanese nation because some enterprising Japanese manufacturers copied and reproduced American machinery and Japanese publishers pirated American books. I could hardly restrain my historical laughter until I could inform him how respectable American citizens encouraged English mechanics a hundred years ago to steal English machine designs and smuggle them over the sea in defiance of English law.

He was astounded to learn that until the year of grace 1891 American publishers, with some honorable exceptions, pirated the great works that appeared in England without paying English authors or publishers a penny and that one of the most famous of cases in this field was the pirating of Farrar's *Life of Christ* by a famous religious publisher who made a huge sum of money out of the bold enterprize. There is nothing like the music of history to smooth the breast of the savage traveller. I propose therefore an amendment to the passport law to read as follows: "No passport shall be issued by the Department of State to any American citizen authorizing him to travel abroad until he has passed an examination in social and economic history and exhibits the contrite spirit that comes from a little knowledge of day before yesterday." Such a requirement would restrict the number of American travellers engaged in spreading contempt and hatred of America in foreign lands, and would afford some assurance that those permitted to go abroad would bring back home something more than accumulated grouches about foreign food and sanitation. To the best of my knowledge and belief the manger of Bethlehem was not papered with kindergarten designs; Benjamin Franklin never used a telephone; and George Washington did not sport a twin six; and Abraham Lincoln did not use a safety razor.

CHARLES A. BEARD.

SUMMARY OF PROFESSOR DAWSON'S ADDRESS.

Mr. Dawson spoke informally on *The History Inquiry* for the purpose of securing some discussion of the then unfinished investigation and its results. The topics on which he touched and which were discussed were later summed up in Section VIII of the report of the investigation and are printed herewith. It has seemed that a statement of this kind would be more useful to the members of the Association than a record of the informal discussion which was necessarily immature and unfinished. The whole Report is to be found in the June, 1924, issue of *The Historical Outlook*.

By way of summary, twelve general impressions were printed and distributed to several hundred correspondents in January and February. They were also submitted for discussion at conventions of teachers, professors, and school administrators throughout the country. No dissenting opinion was discovered further than is indicated in the paragraphs which are appended to the statement of the impressions which follow:

1. Ancient History as a separate course seems to be receding in popularity.
2. The tendency to stress recent history seems to be weakening such popularity as Medieval History formerly had.
3. English History as a separate subject seems to be losing ground.
4. The one-year course in World History, while popular in some quarters, does not seem as yet to have made much headway.
5. American History tends to move from the last year of the high school to the next earlier year—the Eleventh Grade.
6. There is a tendency to put into the Twelfth Grade a course in current problems under some such title as *Modern Problems of Democracy* or *Social Problems*.
7. New York and Maryland have recently set up, for the Tenth, Eleventh, and Twelfth Grades, a three-year course in history; and correspondence with trained history teachers shows that such an arrangement is not without widespread support.
8. There seems to be a tendency to put into the Ninth Grade one or more of the new civics courses.
9. There is considerable interest among school administrators in a Junior High School course made up of a combination of materials taken from geography, government, history, and industrial and social conditions.

10. The tendency to give a large amount of time to the socialized discussion of current events seems to be growing.
11. The teaching of government seems to be standing still, if not actually receding, under the pressure for a rather indefinite discussion of economic and social problems.
12. The training of teachers for the social studies, separately or as a group, is clearly in sad need of attention.

There is no doubt that ancient, medieval, and English history, as separate courses, tend to disappear from the high school curriculum. Much of their content is being incorporated in the grade 10 course in general history, which lays most of its stress on the modern period, or in some other arrangement of European history, such as the New York curriculum mentioned below. There are almost as many proposals for the arrangement of the European history course as there are educational reformers, but most of them tend to cut it to not more than three semesters.

Difference of opinion exists as to the present progress of the movement to provide a one-year general survey of history. The statistics collected through questionnaires show a 200 per cent. increase since 1914 in the schools offering the course. Several correspondents believe that this is much too conservative an estimate. They believe that all of the facts would show five times as large an increase. Their argument is that the weaker schools are turning to this course; that these schools would be less likely to answer the questionnaires promptly, and that, therefore, the returns represent a small proportion of the real offerings of the course. It is likely that there is some truth in this criticism of the figures.

As to the weakness of the course, which is almost universally condemned by professors of history, there is some possibility that we are betrayed into confusion by the use of unclear names of courses. Correspondents have criticised the effort to differentiate between courses in "modern history," "medieval and modern," and "general history." They say these are all one. Yet the Committee of Seven prescribed a course under the title "medieval and modern" and prescribed the "general" history course. It is not possible to determine the strength of the movement for any particular arrangement of this non-American history. It does seem to be true, however, that as leadership in the making of curricula passes

from the Committee of Seven to the N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies, the amount of history other than that of the United States tends to decrease. Risking the danger of leaving no clear impression, it must be added that the amount of non-American history recommended by the Committee of Seven and the amount actually taken by the average pupil under that recommendation are two entirely different things. It may be that the pupil who most needed to study European history did so only as he was required to, and that this requirement was generally almost nil.

As non-American history gravitates to grade 10, so American history moves to grade 11 from grade 12. The Committee of Seven sought to place this course, with civil government included, where it would reach the pupil at his greatest maturity. It was thought that with this arrangement, whatever history the pupil had studied would be brought to bear on the study of our own country and the organization of our own society. As the feeling has developed that the organization of society should not be taught through history, but through an analysis of modern problems, the tendency has been to push the American history back in order to make room for such analysis.

It is particularly difficult to discuss the proposed grade 12 course. There is no doubt about the strength of the desire to train pupils to face the dangers which come with universal literacy, universal suffrage, an undeveloped press, and almost unlimited material prosperity. The desire to give this training is running far ahead of the facilities for giving it effectively. Some correspondents believe that the statistics show a desire not necessarily for a definite course in "Problems of Democracy," but rather for the teaching of modern problems and the experience and scientific principles which may guide us in our attack on these problems. Some of them say that the history courses furnish this training; others say that the way out is through courses in economics, civics (government), and sociology. The discussions seem to indicate that one must take with a little salt the apparent disposition to fly to the "Problems of Democracy" course. It may be that school administrators have turned to it because the scholars who might have provided more vital courses in history and the other social studies did not do their duty as leaders either in outlining courses or in the training of teachers.

One of the serious weaknesses in the teaching of social studies in colleges, as well as in high schools, grows out of the fact that classes are not homogeneous as to the previous preparation of the pupils. A consequence of this is that all courses tend to be elementary, for both professors and teachers grade their instruction down to the weaker members of their classes. A class in American history which is composed of some members who have had no previous training in any social study and of others who have had from one to three units of such training, is likely to be instructed as if it were composed wholly of members without previous training. Among other consequences of this situation is a disposition on the part of pupils to try to "finish" a course and forget it. Why should they carry anything over to a succeeding course if it is not used in the second course?

The New York State course of study seeks to correct this weakness through a curriculum in history for grades 10-12. Three courses are offered, as follows:

History A, Grade 10, European History to 1789.

History B, Grade 11, European History since 1789.

History C, Grade 12, American History since 1789.

Mr. E. P. Smith, State Inspector of History, speaks of the course as "synthetic history." It is a three-year sequence in which is included the elements of economic, social, and political organization. American colonial history is included in the grade 10 course; civics in grade 12. It is assumed that economic and social facts and principles will be discussed where they naturally come in historical evolution. Mr. Geo. J. Jones, who directs the social studies in Washington, D. C., believes that the only way to vitalize the history in the high school course is to include in it the problems of organized society. The Maryland course of study is similar to that of New York, and one finds history teachers in all parts of the country who believe that some such arrangement is a practicable one.

One of the obstacles to it is the fear that school administrators cannot find room for one unit of social studies in each of these three grades. But school administrators are saying that the social studies should be "the core of the curriculum." Surely the *core* should run through from one end to the other. A committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals has re-

ported that social studies, other than history, should occupy the time of one-half a unit in each grade of the junior and senior high school. This means two units in the four-year high school. No one denies that American history should have one unit, and it is difficult to picture the type of mind which, in this age of world thought, does not accord one unit in the high school to the study of history other than that of the United States. This means four units in the four-year high school or three in grades 10-12. Consequently, the question at issue is: Shall these three units be arranged in a connected course in which the instruction of each year will rest squarely on the work of previous years, or shall each course be a separate unit in itself for any pupil to elect or not as circumstances prompt him?

It has been said above that ancient history tends to disappear as a separate course. It is apparent from the statistics that this tendency moves slowly. The college entrance requirements, which members of the Committee of Seven considered one of the most serious obstacles to a wise organization of the social studies, still hold this course in its place in a large number of schools of the more conservative type. Not a single recent proposal in this field includes a separate course in ancient history among its recommendations. Grade 9 is organized as a finishing course rather than a beginning one, for the reason that so many pupils leave school on its completion. In schools which have not moved rapidly toward the junior high school (grades 7-9) arrangement, the social studies in grade 9 are likely to be offered in the form of a year of community civics, or a half year of this and a half year of a three-semester course in European history.

The movement in the plastic junior high school is difficult to estimate. School administrators, somewhat nervous about their obligations to find suitable material for it, and but little guided by specialists in the several social studies, very generally are turning to the "general social science" course, which has been described above in the words of Mr. Glass. The most ambitious proposals in this direction have been fully discussed by Professor Gambrill, and need not be further analyzed here. There is little doubt however, that if the junior high school movement continues in its present line of march, there will be little history taught in grades 7-9. Such new courses of study as that of New Jersey, as reported in THE

HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for May this year, seem to offer no history other than American, and but little more than one unit of that. Society is to be studied in cross-section analysis rather than in evolution, and civics is to take the place of history—civics with a very broad definition.

The cross-section method expresses itself in all the social studies in the form of a rapidly growing emphasis on current events and a rather emotional discussion of them. They are used not only for illustrative purposes, as they have always been to some extent, but one-fifth of the time assigned to a history course, for example, is likely to be taken away and devoted to rather impressionistic discussion of newspaper information which is wholly unrelated to the subject-matter of the course, occupying the remaining four-fifths of the time. Some teachers report that this tendency is largely promoted by advertising campaigns to sell the magazines which are most nearly like the newspapers. One of these is reported in the questionnaire as in use in one-third of the schools of the country, another in one-fifth, and several others are largely used.

Mr. H. H. Moore has reported some statistics on the study of current events. He finds a rapid and increasing interest in this type of teaching, and presents a table in which is shown the character of the topics discussed. Some nine thousand items fall into the following classification:

International politics.....	4,095
Domestic politics.....	1,341
Local politics (included in domestic).....	57
Economics.....	1,896
Sociology.....	762
Miscellaneous (science, etc.).....	953

Under economics, about a third of the topics are classified as "economic industrial conditions." On these Mr. Moore was kind enough to supply the following comment from the statistician who tabulated his returns:

"If I remember correctly, the discussion of economic conditions of life in an industrial environment included such topics as housing, sanitation, real wages, industrial abuses, etc. It was ordinarily found on those returns which exhibited a tendency to answer in general rather than in specific terms, to be vague instead of precise, and there seemed no way of tabulating such answers as to get anything definite out of them."

One may easily imagine that much of the time of the pupils was spent in the kind of pathological comment which inspired a professor of sociology to protest against "mere forensic exchange of ignorant opinion," if opinion it may be called.

Among school administrators the need of more serious and systematic instruction in economics is fully appreciated, as has been shown in the statistics of opinion to be found above (p. 260). It may be doubted whether the administrators have had the time to think out this need to its elements and to the organization of instruction needed to meet it; but that is another story. That they are awake to the need is probably certain.

Among the General Impressions distributed for discussion, No. 11 has met with some criticism. This doubt grows out of the fact that twenty-eight States have enacted laws requiring the study of the Federal Constitution, and the further fact that some teachers now think that they see a swing away from the discussion of social problems to more serious instruction in political principles. As an offset to this opinion, attention may be recalled to the following facts: Where the combination "American History and Civics" for grade 11 or 12 used to be in terms of three parts of history and two parts of civics—the latter made up mainly of government—it is now reported that only one-fifth of the time is likely to be given to civics, and that much of this is spent in a discussion of problems, with but little stress on the political and legal organization set up with a view to the administration of these problems; secondly, in discussing the courses in problems of democracy of grade 12, most correspondents seem to think in terms of sociology or social economics, rather than in those of political organization; thirdly, the graduates from courses in community civics in grade 8 or 9 show little resulting understanding of current constructive political thought, but rather an emotional regret that things are as bad as they are.

TEACHER TRAINING

In the second printed summary distributed for discussion the following statement was included: "The training and selection of teachers—the fundamental and only permanently hopeful consideration—is neglected on all sides, and faithful teachers are being asked to do what they know they are not prepared for, and must

therefore fail to do." In the responses there was little comment on it except an almost universal "Amen." In the general correspondence such statements as the following are common:

In general, I am struck with the prodigious importance we attach to this or that course, assuming that it has a sort of innate virtue, or ability to propel itself, once the author has wound it up and the teacher has set it going. As I grow older my conviction deepens that the teacher is the thing, and that I course under almost any name, in the hands of an equipped teacher, will be successful. . . . Some teachers are likely to assume that the trouble is with the course when perhaps it lies with themselves.

A scattered few, among hundreds, said that here or there one would find effective teacher training in the social studies, but inquiry generally dissolved any hope that had been aroused. There are a number of places where history teachers are being well trained to teach history as a special subject, differentiated from its allies and from the synthetic courses, such as those in the New York State sequence; but the places where teachers of the social-studies are being prepared are so rare as to constitute only the exceptions that prove the rule.

An examination of the practice in teacher training institutions was not made a part of The History Curricula Inquiry, but the situation was studied with some thoroughness in 1920. It was found that professors of education gave too little attention to securing the co-operation of professors of subject-matter. The former replied that it was impossible to interest the latter, who were so busy equipping prospective graduate students that they were unwilling to offer courses suitable for the prospective secondary school teacher. The professors of subjects, meeting this criticism, replied that the school of education asked them to give such superficial courses that they could not comply and at the same time maintain their self-respect. The statements just made are rather exceptionally abrupt, but the feeling underlying them, as every one knows, is making co-operation between academic professors and professors of education almost impossible. Almost as little co-operation was observable among professors of economics, history, political science, and sociology. In a few universities curricula have now been developed out of the elements of history and the other social studies, and so organized that the prospective teacher can, if he will, equip himself by devoting to the task something

like a third of the one hundred and twenty units required for graduation with the bachelor's degree.

The universities are but little encouraged to equip teachers of the social studies when it is likely that the teacher will be assigned to other work. Under the blanket certificate, still so common, a candidate is licensed to teach in high schools—to teach at large and any subject. Even when he is licensed in a subject, he is as likely as not to be assigned to some other field. These facts are now so well known that one hesitates to repeat them, yet persons who are not in education are scarcely ready to believe that such improvident inefficiency can actually be the practice. A pupil is doubtless far more rapidly advanced toward good citizenship through studying algebra under a teacher training to teach that subject than through studying social studies under him if he is not trained to teach those studies. Not a few correspondents expressed the belief that the present methods of assigning teachers to the social studies are likely to discredit the whole movement to secure recognition for these subjects. Many school administrators are dissatisfied with the results obtained from the teaching of history, and disposed to substitute for it courses under other names. It may be that if they would once experiment with history in the hands of well-trained teachers, they would find it a really effective implement of education.

Nothing that is said in this report can justly be interpreted as a reflection on the teacher himself. Hundreds of excellent teachers are making of history all that the subject is capable of being. No fault can justly be found with a teacher who is handling the subject without suitable preparation. Being unprepared, he does not know the subject well enough to appreciate his own lack of insight, and therefore does not know that he is really not teaching the subject. But one is in danger of becoming over-heated on this subject. The reader is therefore respectfully referred to the bulletin cited above.

SOME TENDENCIES AND ISSUES IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN SCHOOLS

Among the numerous debated questions concerning the teaching of the social studies in schools, probably the most insistent and contentious is the place and treatment of history. It ought to be helpful to obtain a summary and grouping of the tendencies and issues, even though the actual facts brought together are all well known to students of the subject. An analysis of outstanding tendencies and issues in practice and opinion may be based upon a critical and comparative study of such materials as the following:—committee reports and curricula; the subjects and findings of research and experiment; observations in class rooms in representative sections of the United States; school and college textbooks, and historiography, including popular and juvenile works; discussions of learned and professional societies and of committees, and private conferences.

Such an analysis ought to prove fruitful, but if adequately done with appropriate discussion of the issues, it would require prolonged study and reflection, and the scope of a good sized volume. My present task is the modest one of presenting a very brief summary, necessarily very condensed and somewhat dogmatic.¹ In spite of these limitations, a concise analysis, based upon the sources already enumerated, ought to provide a useful basis for the consideration of a troublesome problem. I shall not hesitate to indicate incidentally my own opinions from point to point, although it will be impossible to enter upon a critical discussion of the issues raised.

The principal tendencies and issues, as I see them, may be grouped around the following topics:—1. a progressive emphasis upon the modern and the recent; 2. a progressive broadening and

¹The reader who is not in close touch with developments in the teaching of the social studies, and desires to obtain more detailed information and discussion, is referred to the following: "Experimental Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies," the report of an investigation made for the Commonwealth Fund by J. M. Gambrill (McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, 20c); "The History Inquiry," the report of a survey by Edgar Dawson, in *The Historical Outlook* for June, 1924 (McKinley Pub. Co.); "The Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary School," Part II of the Twenty-second Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education (Public School Pub. Co., Bloomington, Ill.).

deepening of the content and treatment of history; 3. problems of selection, synthesis, and interpretation; 4. world history as a story of the development of mankind; 5. history as part of the social studies group; 6. the scientific vs. the partisan and propaganda treatment of history; 7. the advent of the "curriculum specialist". Each of these will be briefly considered in turn, and it may be remarked at the outset that all are closely associated with the demand that history, as well as the other social studies, shall contribute effectively to civic education. It may also be well to remark at the beginning that current styles are not necessarily wise or desirable, and our tendencies should, therefore, be critically examined before we venture to make decisions about issues involved.

1. *A Progressive emphasis upon the modern and recent.* — The older practices of stopping a narrative a generation back, or treating recent history in a scanty and gingerly fashion, if at all, of giving the major attention to earlier times in all fields, of preferring ancient to modern history, have all rapidly declined. More and more it is demanded that textbooks be brought down to the minute, that recent events be stressed, that the modern shall overshadow, if not entirely replace, the ancient. The separate course on the ancient world is taught in fewer schools each year, and its decline would be still more rapid, but for college entrance requirements.

The changing proportions of textbooks and courses of study constitute a striking exhibit. When the Committee of Seven divided a two-year sequence of European history at 800 A. D. there was no little protest against the overcrowding of the first year; yet less than a score of years later succeeding committees carried the first year's work to the 18th century A. D., some courses now fix 1789 as the dividing point, while even later dates are proposed. College courses on modern Europe are tending to move the halfway point from 1789 to 1815, in some cases to 1850 or 1870. In American history it is the same. When Professor Muzzey's high school text in 1910 gave one-fourth of the space to the period since the Civil War, it was considered a radical innovation. The same author's two-volume college text of 1923-24 has adopted 1865 as the halfway mark. Numerous other high school texts reveal the same tendency, in fact new textbooks and revised editions of older books, for all fields of history and for all grades of

work, are showing in varying degrees the tendency to emphasize later periods of development. Many careful students of history are convinced that this tendency may be overdone, and that chronological nearness is not necessarily a criterion of value, and certainly not the sole criterion.

The introduction of a number of college courses and of some high school courses in contemporary history reveal the same interest and leaning. Another evidence is the rapid spread in schools of the teaching of "current events" from magazines, to which one-fifth, or one-fourth of the class time for history and civics is frequently allotted. The mere fact of the presence of a subject in the current news is frequently overrated as a measure of importance, and as an indication of the best time for study; the necessity for adequate historical background is not sufficiently recognized. The teaching of current events in the schools is seldom done well, and is often done very ill, but always with a complacent confidence that the pupils are getting something really "live" and "worthwhile". The inevitable extreme is reached in proposals to discontinue altogether the teaching of history as a subject, in favor of problems or "projects" drawn from current social and political situations, in the study of which some facts about the past may be included. According to this plan history will not be studied, but historical facts will be used. How wisely such facts can be used without any real historical background is a question that may fairly be raised. It is also necessary to face the question whether the careful study of the development of large social groups—nations, continents, or humanity, is educationally worthwhile.

2. *Progressive broadening and deepening of the content and treatment of history.* — The growing effort to seek out and report all phases of the developing life of peoples, their social as well as their political history, is a conspicuous tendency of the times. It began long ago, but has been especially marked in our own generation. In spite of such 18th century forerunners as Voltaire, of the theory and practice of such 19th century writers as Macaulay, J. R. Green and Buckle, of the exploitation of *Kulturgeschichte* in the second half of the 19th century, of the five volumes of McMaster's *History of the People of the United States* that appeared between 1883 and 1900, and of the occasional suggestions of

educators as far back as Comenius in mid-seventeenth century, the content of school and college textbooks had been only slightly modified by the close of the 19th century. At the opening of the 20th century the staple was still almost wholly political and military, with perhaps some small-type supplementary sections on manners and customs.

Since 1900, and especially during the second half of the period, the development of economic and social history and its enlarging place in the school and college curriculum, have been striking. The era of nationalism, of exaltation of the state, of inflamed nationalist patriotism, inevitably fostered and promoted the study and teaching of political and military history; but the era of economic and social revolution ushered in by the age of machinery and applied science have irresistibly driven us to social history. If it is really worth while to know something about the past, and about the origin and development of our institutions and problems, the economic and social factors are, to say the least, no less important than the political. And so there has been a growing attention to the progress of science and invention and their social consequences, to the rise of industry and Big Business, to labor movements and class struggles, to changing habits and fashions in thought and social ethics. Political history is seen as something not really intelligible without the economic and social data to which we must turn for the answer to the all-important "Why?". The development of democracy stimulates an interest in the common man and his place in history. The multiplication of special courses and books on economic, industrial, and social history is too familiar to require comment.

"The new history" needed "new allies", as Professor Robinson has aptly called them—not only such older allies as political science and, to some extent, geography, but economics, sociology, anthropology, social psychology, and such special fields as comparative religion and international relations. All these related subjects or sciences have developed rapidly, and historians and textbook writers have drawn upon them more or less freely, as well as upon the physical sciences although here we are touching upon questions definitely controversial.

Opinion appears to be overwhelmingly in favor of the general tendency under discussion, although there is difference enough as

to proportion and emphasis, and in some cases the possibility of an undue subordination of political history. Among school people who have considered the problem something very close to unanimity prevails in the acceptance of the new emphasis upon social history as compared with political history.

3. *Problems of selection, synthesis and interpretation.*—The broadening and deepening of the treatment of history has brought about a better appreciation of the unity and continuity of human life, with the belief that this unity and continuity should be reflected in history by an adequate fusion of the economic, political, and social phases of development. History should be a seamless web, as a famous historian has stated, but how far is it humanly possible in the writing and studying of history to weave all the threads together, either simultaneously or successively?

The first efforts to introduce economic and social history into the textbooks were very disjointed in character. Sections, paragraphs, or chapters on manners and customs, economic affairs, literature or some other phase were mechanically added, with little or no indication of their organic relation to the rest of the story. Lists of inventions or scientific discoveries were often included as mere interpolations, as barren or misleading as lists of rulers or statistics about battles. Gradually there was an effort to fuse into one inclusive synthesis the various phases of human development. The task is difficult, and a variety of methods have been tried. While it is impossible here to enter upon a discussion of the subject, it may be pointed out that in general our textbooks and courses of study are showing an attempt to work with larger units, and to bring out more clearly the interrelations. There is much more interest in topical studies, and some of the attempts to teach by problems or "projects" owe their success, in part at least, to the fact that they are essentially adaptations of the topical idea. The plan of *Kulturbilder*, proposed more than a generation ago by Biedermann, is being revived here and there, although without acknowledgment to the author of the scheme.

The attempt to achieve a better integration of political and social history is illustrated in several recent school and college textbooks. Breasted's *Ancient Times*, Beard's *History of the United States*, Hayes's and Moon's *Modern History*, are striking examples in the high school field; while Hayes's *Political and Social*

History of Modern Europe, and Thorndike's *History of Medieval Europe* are good examples from the college field.

Synthesis is inevitably interpretation. In its more ambitious efforts it seeks to show in the clearest possible way the intricate interrelations of human activities and institutions, the characteristic features of change and transition, and the fundamental fact of continuity in development. There must also be selection from the thousands of facts about the past, chosen with regard to what is most significant in the development of mankind. All this presents a task of extreme difficulty, demanding thorough knowledge, keen insight, strong imagination, good judgment, a sense of order and interdependence, skill in terse and pointed expression, and a willingness to overcome one's personal prejudices and predilections in favor of such scientific detachment as one can achieve. There is no "right" plan, but many ways in which the story may be viewed and interpreted, according to the varying choice of theme and arrangement and point of view. No wonder that so many historians prefer a simple analistic or narrative and descriptive treatment, refusing in the name of fairness and impartiality to assume the responsibility of attempting a real synthesis.

It is still harder to accomplish an adequate interpretative organization of materials for children. The same firm grasp of essential facts and relations is required, and in addition the ability to formulate these in terms that the youthful student can understand. Moreover, concrete stories and cases must be chosen to embody the ideas represented in the group topics. A pioneer effort to do this sort of thing for grades V to VIII appears in the Course of Study for Baltimore County, Maryland, published in 1915, which has received the compliment of wide and for the most part unacknowledged adoption or imitation by textbook writers and curriculum makers. Many of the attempts at interpretative synthesis for school history are ignorant and superficial, or clumsy and ineffective. It is true also that school history, and even college history, is still prevailingly a study of one set of details after another, with little effort to group the materials in larger units. Yet in spite of these difficulties, and of the necessary limitations of whatever is done, I believe that our history teaching will

more and more seek to make progress in the matter of interpretative organization.

4. *World History*. — Why not apply to the entire story of humanity the broader and deeper treatment of social history, the utmost aid of the new allies of related social sciences and needed help from natural science as well, the best principles of selection, the clearest and soundest synthesis that can be achieved? Why not abandon, so far as is humanly possible, the nationalist and regional point of view and treat history as the story of “the common adventure of all mankind”? The resulting product would be something quite different from the old-fashioned “general” or “universal” history, which sought to epitomize the history of states and nations. There are signs of groping towards a much better conception of world history, but the exploitation of the idea has come most emphatically and effectively from outside the historical guild, for whatever the deficiencies of Mr. Wells’s famous and enormously sold *Outline*, his theories and proposals are highly suggestive and stimulating. The wide popularity of Van Loon’s sketch of the *Story of Mankind* for youthful readers, and the announcement of other juvenile histories of the world, are further indications of interest in a different type of world history.

Many high schools are introducing the one-year course in world history, but curiously enough with scanty signs of any understanding of the conception under discussion. It would not be far from the truth to say that these courses in the main represent a reversion to the older general history, and are reactionary rather than progressive. It is true that the better texts do give a large amount of space to social and economic history, that most of them emphasize the modern period, and that in a number of respects books and courses show the influence of new tendencies in history teaching, yet there are very few signs of any attempt at a fresh synthesis. When the materials that have commonly been offered recently in a two-years sequence have been crammed into one volume and a one-year course, that course is too crowded, too little concerned with large movements and major transitions to indicate in their treatment the fundamental aspects of social development. The reason for these conditions may be found in the motive promoting the introduction of the course: the desire to find time for other subjects while “covering the ground” of all periods of history.

More time is desired for other social studies, or for the special interests of groups following technical or commercial courses. It is easy to introduce world history in the name of progress. Actually school officials are taking advantage of the educational fashion to introduce "world history" which is merely a convenient device for taking at one gulp the ancient, modern, and English history, with little regard to how badly the youthful victims gag and choke. No wonder that we find the administrator and the historian ranged on opposite sides of this issue. It will be hard to defend the one year course in world history until courses and texts are available that represent better selection and synthesis.

Here and there we meet proposals not only to teach world history, but to make it replace all other history courses including that of our own nation, concentrating the entire study of history into one course. One or two experimenters go still further and propose world history courses that will include not only all the history, but all the other work in social studies that the high school has to offer. Such proposals raise numerous interesting practical questions such as grade placement, amount of time needed, teaching methods, etc.

5. *History as part of the social studies group.* — The origin of the term "social studies" is obscure, but its currency dates from the influential report of the National Education Association Committee on *Social Studies in Secondary Education*, published in 1916. According to this Committee "The social studies are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups." The Committee added that "the social studies differ from other studies by reason of their social content rather than in social aim." The name is still too often vaguely used, and is unsatisfactory in several important respects, but no one has yet suggested a better one. Some general term is needed for the group of studies dealing chiefly and in scientific spirit with human society as contrasted with those studies devoted chiefly to nature and the material world. Such group plainly includes history, economics, sociology and politic science, but also, if they are studied, such subjects as social anthro-

¹Bulletin No. 28, 1916, United States Bureau of Education.

pology, social psychology, and social ethics, would also be included. Geography is a *liaison* subject, in that its special aim is to exhibit the relation between man and his natural environment, and it must therefore deal both with the material world and with human society.

There is a growing tendency visible, even in the colleges, to consider together and in their interrelations, this group of social subjects or sciences, treating the study of each as part of a cooperative educational procedure. History cannot live unto itself in the educative process. But just what is the place of history — in the social studies group, in civic education in the complete process of education? How much of the time available shall be allowed for the study of history? Shall it be partially or wholly fused with some or all of the other social studies? These questions are answered in widely different ways, and not always objectively or with scientific calm. There is no doubt, however, about the existence of a strong tendency to consider together this group of subjects in curriculum-making and in teaching. Recent state and city courses of study are nearly all made in that way, and college courses, similar to Columbia's Contemporary Civilization for freshmen, have multiplied rapidly during the past four or five years.

6. *The scientific vs. the partizan and propaganda attitude in the study of history.* Historians from the earliest times have frequently written for partizan purposes — to defend or attack a cause, a religion, a people, a nation, a political doctrine, or to moralize in accordance with the special creed or viewpoint of the author. The "new history" of Professor Robinson and others insisted strongly upon the scientific temper and method, upon a realistic study of origins and development, upon an open-minded search for facts. The years of the World War and its aftermath have brought a reaction. In all the countries that had a part in the Great War the historians were mobilized like other groups of the population, and did their utmost to interpret, or to re-interpret, history in terms of the war interests of their respective countries. The almost total disappearance of the scientific temper in favor of propaganda in the interests of "patriotism" has borne its legitimate fruit. To-day there is a vigorous and noisy attack upon scientific aim and method in history — still in the name of "patriotism".

The principal subject of controversy has been the treatment of the American Revolution in school textbooks. A number of patriotic societies and a chain of newspapers have attacked every textbook that declines to treat the American revolution in a spirit of partizanship and spreadeagle "patriotism." In some cases the textbooks under attack have been fairly open to severe criticism, not however on the grounds of patriotism, but because of failure to effect a sound interpretation, or of adaptability to children. This agitation has gone so far, and has extended to so many subjects, that it constitutes a definite issue that teachers and school officials must meet. Are we going to seek as objectively as we can to tell the truth about the past, and to interpret it in a sane and moderate manner, and proceed on the principle that open-minded search for the truth is more important than any particular interpretation; or are we going to be guided by the impulse of a tribal and emotional "patriotism" to a frankly partizan treatment that makes our own country always right and always possessed of the best institutions, the highest efficiency and the noblest aims? Why not make our patriotism as intelligent as possible, seeking to understand our history, our institutions, our people, our leaders, instead of indulging in smug self-glorification? There must always be differences of opinion about interpretation and comparative merit and even about the facts, but there ought to be common agreement that more important than all these is the cultivation of intellectual honesty, of open-minded search for truth, of a courageous willingness to face even the most unpleasant of facts.

7. *Advent of the curriculum specialist.*— This development is a natural consequence of the rapid advance of education as a profession and the steadily increasing efforts to build up a body of scientific data upon which the practice of that profession may rest. Research and experiment are increasingly undertaken. Naturally there is an attempt to determine curriculum materials by a scientific procedure and thus escape wholly or in part from dependence upon personal judgment and opinion. It is an easy step to the assumption that the scholar-specialist is not needed, that he is a prejudiced person interested only in his subject, and that educators may proceed by objective methods to valid results. "Objectives" and "criteria" are set up, and materials are sought to serve the desired ends. Newspapers, periodicals, books, or the platforms

of political parties are elaborately analyzed and the contents tabulated; the annual output of publishers or withdrawals from public libraries are studied to ascertain the comparative demand for history; questionnaires are issued to find out whether a sample group of adults make use of history and how, or what leading citizens think should be the subject-matter, or to inquire what items the parents of a class of children have found useful; the duties of citizenship are subjected to "job analysis"; and so on.

This development has made a great impression in educational circles. It fosters the idea that professional educators are self-sufficient in curriculum-making, that mere textbook knowledge in history, for instance, is sufficient if the work is conducted or directed on the basis of sound educational principles and right objectives. School officials undertaking curriculum revision now frequently seek expert assistance, but they summon a professor of education, rarely indeed a scholar of comparable standing in history. When the latter is called upon at all it is usually after the courses have been made, and the criticism at this stage is only too likely to prove ineffective, if not perfunctory.

Adequate discussion of this tendency, of its valuable and harmful features, of its wisdom and its stupidities, is impossible within the limits of a paragraph or two, but a few important questions can readily be stated. What kinds of material are worth analyzing? What constitutes adequate analysis? How far are the findings (e. g., about the present content of newspapers and magazines) a guide to what ought to be put into school curricula? How far is it possible, or, if possible, desirable to determine curricula exclusively by such inquiries and tabulations? And assuming that we can be guided scientifically and infallibly to the right materials, how are these materials to be treated, organized, arranged, and placed for curriculum purposes? In the case of history, further, there are involved questions concerning its distinctive character and methods and fundamental purposes as a field of organized knowledge. Shall we decide, for example, whether to teach the French Revolution and what to teach about it and how much to emphasize it, by ascertaining the frequency of allusions in newspapers and periodicals or the extent to which political scientists and sociologists discuss it; or may we assume some educational worth in the conclusions of the historian seeking

directly to ascertain the facts about that great transformation and its significance in the development of the modern world?

Underlying all the tendencies I have discussed is the general objective, the final criterion, of the educators—practical value in training for citizenship. The frequent assumption that this is something new and radical is of course absurd. It is very ancient. Even in American schools it appears from the earliest introduction of history and civics. We are now, however, asking rather urgently whether this result is actually being achieved, seeking to ascertain more definitely the qualities of good citizenship, and inquiring whether the history now taught in schools is making the best possible contribution to desired goals. Such skepticism and critical study is wholesome and can scarcely fail in the long run to bring about better selection and synthesis of materials and divers other improvements. There is real danger, however, that educators trying to apply principles that may be sound enough as far as they go, but over-eager for very direct and obvious results and often deplorably ignorant of deeper facts and fundamental relations, will distort and mislead or rest content with skin-deep handling that forfeits rich educational opportunities. The remedy is obvious.

The most fundamental and most difficult question of all is the major problem of democracy itself: the educability of the common man and his capacity to grapple with the civic problems of today, constantly growing in number and complexity and colored by emotion and prejudice. If we have doubts, what are we going to do about it in face of the current religion of democracy and the historic American creed? I do not list this question among the issues because I have recently travelled over the country from coast to coast without discovering any recognition of it, nor do any doubts appear in connection with the numerous curriculum proposals. Yet staggering programs embracing nothing less than the whole range of civic problems and an understanding perspective of the entire history of mankind are urged on the ground that we may thus expect to produce a universally efficient citizenry. Can the mass of our pupils assimilate or our teachers adequately handle such programs? At all events, it ought to be too obvious for argument that the situation demands the fullest

and most disinterested cooperation of specialists both in education and in the social studies, and that the problem of teacher training cannot be considered too seriously or too soon.

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL

DISCUSSION OF THE PAPERS READ BY PROFESSORS DAWSON AND GAMBRILL

Mr. Chairman and Members of the Association:

Surely these two papers present us with much food for thought, and it is not my desire to supply any additional data or to attempt to inject into your thinking any new aspects of the situation. I take it that my task is primarily that of crystallizing some of this thinking into fruitful action. If we were altogether true to our profession, I suppose we would leave things just where they are with these two pictures before us of *what is* in terms of *what has been*. But we are also teachers of history and we must take one step further and, as the speakers have themselves attempted to do, place an interpretation upon this data which will point the way to much desired improvement. In fact, the data itself should serve as a challenge to everyone present, as a sort of "call to battle". I am interested, therefore, in treating it as such by asking you point blank, "What are you going to do about it?" That these matters concern each one of us seems too self-evident even to hint at the necessity for discussing the point.

I do not know that I am especially concerned with defining the issues. To do so is likely to lead to more or less invidious distinctions which can only serve to array us in opposing camps and therefore to remove the situation from the realm of reason to that of the emotions. I am especially desirous, if such a thing be possible, of bringing each one of you in your thinking to the point of seeing more clearly your own relation to and responsibility for the general state of affairs so far as the social studies are concerned. The expert (so-called) in these fields unfortunately is having too little to do with shaping programs and defining courses of study. He appears to have altogether abrogated his function, and to have al-

lowed himself to be supplanted by others less qualified from most points of view for the work in hand. Perhaps it is true that the specialist has failed. This is the charge often brought against him. He may have bungled his job badly; but all have bungled more or less in trying to solve the great problem of popular education. Whatever we may do or say in the light of these facts, let us not at any rate spend valuable time discussing a thesis, all too often the final refuge on such an occasion, that is, that the problem is essentially one of the "personality of the teacher." Let us admit that this is so, and let us proceed to follow more practical and profitable avenues of inquiry.

Let us assume that each and all of us are keen to realize the best in education for the boys and girls for whom we are responsible. Then, in the light of the revelations we have heard to-day, we can hardly be satisfied with existing conditions. Let us then try to face facts and not spend our time trying to shift responsibility. For instance, if we are high school teachers, let us not try to shift responsibility upon the grammar school, or, if our lot is cast with elementary grades let us not place the entire burden on the more preparatory sections of the school system. The question resolves itself into:—What can we do, and what are we individually and collectively going to do, to meet our part of the task of evolving order out of confusion and of making for our subject a worthy place in the school curriculum.

I am more and more impressed with the fact that we have many teachers of the Athenian type of mind. You will remember that Paul got a hearing on Mars Hill, although we do not know what came of it, because he was talking before a people ever eager "to hear some new thing." So it is with the teachers of the social studies, instead of assuming a leadership which we should be in a position to exercise, we find ourselves merely swayed by every changing wave of doctrine, by each new demand on the schools, no matter how impossible it may be of realization, and no matter what may be the source from which it comes. Thus we are abrogating and have been every day abrogating our position as experts, who certainly possess a knowledge of the field superior to that of those who are clamoring so loudly for change. We have not even been intellectually honest with ourselves. Alas, I must admit it; many of us have been grossly ignorant of the subjects

that we have attempted to teach, and entirely out of touch with the boys and girls that we have been trying to teach.

Many suggestions have been proposed and many more will undoubtedly be proposed to meet the situation. Some will undoubtedly say that it is a matter of teacher-training; others, of textbooks; still others, of equipment; others still of the organization of materials. And in every case solutions will be offered in the light of the particular diagnosis most acceptable to the maker. Many contributions will be made, I doubt not.

Our problem is a more immediate one:—that of *acting ourselves* and of *acting now* in the light of the facts which have been revealed to us. One of the matters for our consideration is that of selecting our leadership. If we are looking for guidance, if we are to choose leaders, let us see to it that we choose wisely. There are those among us who would hand us educational “gold bricks”. There are others more concerned with educational propaganda than with education. There are all too many who mistake information for education.

I am not advocating a policy of “stand-patism” in our profession, but I must confess that I have seen too much of the attitude of casting aside all things that have the seal of time upon them, and replacing these by wholly untried and unorganized materials and practices. At the same time, I have been impressed—and I am sure that Professor Gambrill has been impressed likewise—with the comparatively few real experiments that have been undertaken in this great country of ours. Evidently the mass of teachers are waiting for someone to pronounce the magic word, be it curriculum maker, textbook writer or other authoritative person. Our present position may perhaps not admit of anything better, but, at any rate, let us be so much a part of our task, possess so much familiarity with our materials, maintain such real contacts with our class rooms, that we can really appraise these new books and programs that are turned over to us. I am more and more impressed with the crystallization of class-room practice, the crystallization often of the most unreal methods, and I am more and more hopeful that real help will come from the co-operation of the teachers in the field.

Another point that seems to me important is that we are not sufficiently clear as to the special task confronting the teacher of

the special subject. We are all too willing to think and act in terms of the whole program of instruction. If history and the various social studies have any place in the schools, it is essentially because, as separate and distinct fields of knowledge each has a contribution to make. If it has no such special contribution to make no one can claim for it a greater expenditure of time, no matter how enthusiastic he may be. We cannot with the present day pressure upon the curriculum justify the vain repetition or the mere accumulation of data which has at times marked our efforts in the past.

What then can we do about all this? We can be critical first about our own work, and when new proposals are made, we can test these honestly and courageously, and, in the case of half-baked proposals of doubtful origin, we can decline to accept these whole-heartedly and unqualifiedly. Along with this we can ourselves be experimental, realizing that the class room is at the same time the laboratory and work-room, imposing upon us just as great an obligation to lead a real life and to secure real reactions from the clientèle there as is demanded in the world outside. We can proceed to choose for ourselves leadership more in harmony with our ideals and training. Finally we can at all times exercise an influence for improved conditions, standing firmly against tendencies which would only add to present chaos and remove us further from the true goal of education.

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON

Mr. Chairman and Members of the Association:

In the light of the discussion which has been so ably carried forward by the previous speakers I am at a loss to know what to say that can move the whole thing forward. I regret that my interests are not mainly history and I must confess myself wholly incompetent to present a discussion that would presume to suggest to experts a course of action. I am wondering why I have a place on the program at all. But it is probably the function of the discussion leaders to provide "shock material" for discussion. If this is understood, may I take the liberty to speak frankly as I think and to submit my thoughts for what they are worth.

Permit me to state the problem from the point of view from which I should like to have the discussion developed: *Given a tax*

supported system of public education in a democracy, what shall be the curriculum in the social studies in the elementary schools?

Several important movements have been afoot in an attempt to develop by "scientific" procedure the content of these courses. We can admire the authors for their daring and praise them for their ingenuity but in the end their technique and procedure must stand the acid test of plain common sense. One attempt to discover the subject-matter content of the social studies, especially that of history, adopted the procedure of tabulating the historical allusions as they appeared in a selected list of newspapers and magazines. From this I should judge that the frequency with which the allusion occurred was the basis of valuation. We can judge the method by the results. When such a procedure places William Jennings Bryan above Washington and Jefferson in the course of study common sense cries out, "Preposterous!"

Another attempt has attracted considerable attention because of the effort to merge the subjects of Geography, History and Economics into single study called the "social studies". The effort is laudable because it is a step in the direction of simplifying the curriculum which is one of the most serious problems in the field of elementary education. Personally I do not believe that the latter problem is to be solved in this manner, but this is aside from the point. It is of interest to note that the plan selects as the core of the curriculum, a graded series of social problems. The results so far, while exceedingly interesting, are not sufficiently inspiring from the point of view of history and geography, to compel the respect of the experts and scholars in those fields.

Introspectively, I inquire, "What would you desire in connection with the social studies if you could live your elementary school life over again?" My answer is very simple and straight forward. I want a course in the history of my country that will make me feel the lofty greatness and dignity that belongs to it. Furthermore the way in which it is taught is just as important as *what* is taught. Permit me to elaborate a trifle. In the first place, I should like to have the story told as a connected whole. I should like to come to know my country as an evolving organism; a mighty oak whose roots reaching deep into the past bring together the best of the remote and diverse regions of the earth; a continuous whole

from the past to the present evolving throughout time according to the law of cause and effect.

In the second place, my history teacher should feel the lofty greatness of my country so deeply that I shall learn the truth. A nation, truly greatly great cannot afford to stoop to petty lies, or insidious propaganda. A nation of people who can face the truth, when the truth hurts, who can admit mistakes, when they are made, has indeed reached the highest levels of national character. When a nation must conceal its faults it has taken the first steps to destruction.

In the third place, my teacher should afford me the rare opportunity of living over again the great epochs of the past. I shall have the privilege of standing beside Columbus on board the Santa Maria; I shall help cut the first tree at Plymouth; I shall stand beside Washington at Valley Forge; I shall fight with Andrew Jackson; I shall chat with Lincoln and I shall stand beside Wilson at Versailles. I shall face the problems they faced; but more than that, my teacher will give me the rare (very rare) opportunity of suggesting what I might have said and might have done had these opportunities been real. Only under such circumstances could I ever hope to have basis for judging the wisdom of those whose destiny it was to help make our country what it has become. Only then shall I be able to understand the great impulses that lie behind our national greatness that gave it its character. In this way I shall come to know rightly the "Living Past".

E. CURT WALTHER

Mr. Chairman and Members of the Association:

After such a careful discussion of the subject by persons so well prepared to deal with it, anything I say seems either superfluous or presumptuous. However, I do feel a very real anxiety as to the fate of "legitimate" history in our schools, especially the history of the early periods.

With Community Civics in the ninth grade and Problems of Democracy in the twelfth, and the emphasis in the intervening grades placed on American and Modern European History, there is little opportunity for the study of ancient or mediaeval times. I can not deny the need for instruction in civic and economic prob-

lems; but we Americans are a very practical people and we need cultivation in the direction of the esthetic, the spiritual, and the cultural. The study of early history,—the history of ancient and mediaeval times—seems to be particularly adapted to the realization of these values.

LAURA J. CAIRNES

WASHINGTON MEETING

November 29, 1924

CORCORAN HALL, GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY

Saturday Morning, November 29, at 9:30 o'clock

ADDRESSES:

"National Liberty and International Unity", Dr. Charles G. Fenwick, Professor of Political Science, Bryn Mawr College.

"The Political Background of French Foreign Policy", Dr. Katherine J. Gallagher, Professor of History, Goucher College.

General Discussion.

NATIONAL LIBERTY AND INTERNATIONAL UNITY

Historians, when they enter the field of political science, describe the nineteenth century as the century of constitutional government. Not, indeed, that constitutional government attained its full growth during that period. Many states are still struggling to adjust their traditions of autoocracy to the demands of a democratic constitution; while other states with long established constitutions are still seeking to adjust their written charters to new social and economic conditions. But in its larger aspects constitutional government has carried the day, even if it has not yet attained its full growth.

If I may venture a prediction, the twentieth century will be known to historians as the century of international government. Thus far only the initial steps have been taken. The eve of the twentieth century saw the first International Peace Conference assembled at the Hague and the eve of the first quarter of the century now witnesses the establishment at Geneva of a permanent organization of fifty-five nations whose object is the maintenance of peace and the promotion of their mutual welfare. That there are many difficulties in the path of international government and that its successful development is far from being assured I should not venture to deny. But in its general principles I believe it can be safely asserted that the problem is not an insuperable one. The

same fundamental laws which govern the peaceful administration of constitutional government within the individual state can be made to govern the peaceful administration of the international relations of the states at large. If the practical obstacles to the establishment of a law between states are great, the alternative to our failure to establish it is such as to leave us no choice as to whether we shall make the effort. For modern "civilized warfare" has become so barbarous and destructive that we must either find a cure for it or perish outright of the disease.

What, then, are the fundamental principles upon which international government can be made to rest? What are the conditions attending the establishment of a law between states, and how do they differ from the conditions under which a law between citizens of the same state has been developed? In its more general aspects the law of the state may be defined as a rule of conduct governing the mutual relations of individual citizens, protecting their rights as members of the community, prescribing their respective duties, and promoting the common interests of their whole body. The law of the state thus implies the subordination of the individual to the group within the accepted range of its application. Conflicts of claims between individuals are decided by the collective judgment of the community, acting through the agency of the established courts of justice. Not only may no man be the judge in his own case, but no man may take the law in his own hands. Violence is an offense against the law irrespective of the justice of the cause in which it is resorted to. Redress for wrong must be obtained, if at all, through the channels provided by the state.

Now it is obvious that the operation of all these rules of law imposes numerous restraints upon the liberty of the individual citizen. That he gains immeasurably in liberty in the long run is, of course, his motive for accepting the restraints of the law,—but restraints they are none the less when they happen to run counter to his personal sense of justice. The same is true to an even greater degree when the law acts for the common good of the whole community, or rather a majority of the community, and the individual must give his support to measures or accept restraints which he does not think are useful to himself personally. It is the function of statesmanship to resolve these opposing forces, to restrain liberty in those matters in which restraint is the condition

of a larger enjoyment of liberty in other fields, to determine the limitations of individual freedom that are necessary to secure the welfare of the group. It is safe to say the future generations will still be struggling with this problem when the twentieth century comes to a close.

Now it would not be difficult to show that this antithesis between the desire for freedom on the one hand and the need of law and order on the other, between individual interest and the general welfare, between personal or local self-determination and the authority of the community as a whole runs through almost every form of organization with which man has surrounded himself. The antithesis is, as it were, a key to the philosophy of political history, and it will serve to interpret the interaction of the centripetal and centrifugal forces which mark the rise and fall of empires. Among many illustrations of its working I shall choose the relation of the states of the United States to the Union as a whole.

It will be remembered that when the American colonies united under the Articles of Confederation as a means of securing more effectively their independence, they were careful to assert that in so doing each state retained "its sovereignty, freedom, and independence" and every power not expressly delegated to the Confederation. The Articles had scarcely come into operation before it was realized that a closer union was needed if conflicts were to be avoided between state and state and if the Confederation as a whole was to be saved from financial chaos and commercial anarchy. In other words, practical experience showed that in the formation of the Confederation the freedom of its individual members had been overweighted and that the centrifugal forces were stronger than the centripetal. The result was the calling of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 and the formation of a "more perfect union" under our present Constitution.

Attention has often been called to the parallel between the conditions confronting the American states under the Articles of Confederation and the conditions confronting the world of nations at the present day. The comparison breaks down upon a number of important points; but on the whole it is highly instructive in pointing out the general lines along which progress in international government may be made and the economic rather than political

character of most of the obstacles to closer co-operation between nations.

No one will venture to say that under our present Constitution we have found the final solution of the problem of federal government and the complete adjustment of the antithesis between local self-government within each state and national unity. The dividing line between state functions and national functions was marked off in broad lines by the text of the original constitution. Its actual delimitation, however, has had to be pegged out step by step by decisions of the Supreme Court, and from time to time amendments to the Constitution have changed the landmarks originally prescribed. On the whole the tendency, particularly of recent years, has been towards centralization, and the advantages of unity have taken precedence of the demand for local self-government. No one can predict what will be the final outcome. We can only meet each issue as it arises and solve it with due consideration of the conflicting principles at issue. The hope of the writer is that the tendency in the United States towards centralization will not so far prevail as to deprive the nations of the world of the standing example of the possibilities of federation as a solution of their own political and economic conflicts.

We are now brought to a consideration of the problem of international government which I have ventured to predict will be the chief political accomplishment of the twentieth century. How is the antithesis between national liberty and international unity to be adjusted upon a practical working basis? It is needless to say that no one with any experience in political affairs will propose that the right of national self-government shall be gratuitously transferred in whole or in part to some centralized agency of the nations located at Geneva or at the Hague. To avoid the calamities of war it is not necessary to establish, and no one proposes to establish, a vast international government having a power in world affairs corresponding to that exercised by the federal government at Washington. But if a supreme authority at Geneva or elsewhere be out of the question, it is none the less certain that some form of international organization is necessary to adjust the conflicts of the nations and to promote their mutual welfare. A common rule of conduct between states is the necessary alternative to international anarchy, and the problem is not to decide

whether there shall be such a rule, but what shall be its scope and how it shall be formulated and put into effect.

Already a beginning has been made of a system of law between states, and it will help us to determine what its future development is to be if we examine for a moment what it has thus far brought within its scope. By long practice a definite sphere of national self-government has been marked off within which each nation exercises exclusive jurisdiction. Questions arising within this sphere are known as "domestic questions" and in respect to them the decision of each state is final. Thus the determination of its form of government, the admission of aliens into the state, the privileges of aliens when admitted, the conditions upon which citizenship is granted, the economic policies which the state finds it expedient to adopt, the regulation of the export of domestic goods and of the import of foreign goods, are all questions which each state is free to determine upon its own best judgment of its own needs. Subject to a few qualifications national liberty may be said to be complete within this field.

On the other hand national liberty has given way to international unity in a large number of matters in respect to which the interests of one state are brought into contact with those of other states. By customary usage or treaty agreement rules of law have been adopted regulating navigation on the high seas, fixing the rule of the road, adjusting fishing rights, prohibiting piracy and the slave trade, internationalizing the common highways of commerce through rivers, straits and canals, establishing systems of communication by post and telegraph, providing for the extradition of fugitive criminals and defining the privileges and immunities of diplomatic agents. Within this field national liberty has given way to international unity, and it would be entirely contrary to the facts to speak of each nation retaining its freedom and independence. That the field is much larger than is commonly realized is doubtless due to the fact that it embraces national interests which are relatively unimportant and which therefore rarely give rise to controversies attracting general attention.

But large as is the field of international relations within which a definite rule of law operates, it is important to observe that it does not embrace those conflicts of claims which arise out of matters that are regarded by the individual states as of vital interest to

them. Questions relating to such claims are known as "political questions" and are placed in a class apart from the "legal questions" to which the accepted rules of law apply. Unfortunately these questions include those which experience has shown to be the underlying causes of most of the wars of the past two centuries,—the exploitation of undeveloped countries, the control of the raw materials of industry, the monopoly of foreign markets. Whether these matters can ever be brought within the scope of international law is a problem of great difficulty. For the moment we can only observe that in respect to them national liberty reigns supreme and international unity is scarcely even contemplated as an ideal.

A more fundamental defect of international law, as conditions stood in 1914, was the fact that each individual state remained the interpreter of its own rights and obligations in a given case. Under the code of national law conflicts of claims between individuals are settled by the decision of judicial tribunals representing the collective judgment of the community. Between states of the United States controversies must of obligation be submitted to the Supreme Court of the United States. But between the nations of the world, except in the case of special treaty agreements, each was the judge in its own case, and if it thought it undesirable to resort to the procedure of arbitration it was free to assert its own definitive opinion. Here again national liberty took precedence of international unity. Such international courts as had been established had neither a permanent character nor jurisdiction over any but such cases as might be voluntarily submitted to them.

An equally serious defect of international law was the lack of any general sanction for the protection of the rights recognized by the law. There was no recognition by the community of nations as a whole of its collective responsibility for the maintenance of peace. The principle of national law which forbids a citizen to take the law into his own hands and bids him rely, except in urgent self-defense, upon the protection of the executive officers of the state, was wholly absent from international law. The result was that each state built up around itself as large an army and navy as it felt its needs required, and where its finances were inadequate it fell back upon alliances with other states having common interests and fears with it. Thus was developed that unstable system known as the "balance of power" which provoked suspicion

and discord and subordinated the common interest of all to the special interest of one or other of the conflicting groups.

The limited time allotted me forbids a discussion of the question how far the adoption of the Covenant of the League of Nations has changed the old order which permitted each nation to be the judge in its own case and to take the law into its own hands. But the facts of the situation created by the establishment of the League are sufficiently familiar to all historians to make it unnecessary for me to draw conclusions in respect to them. I need only observe that the adoption at Geneva last September of the new Protocol will have, if the document should be ratified, the effect of closing the loop-holes which the Covenant of 1920 left open and of deposing war from its time-honored position as a recognized form of procedure between states. Whether this attempt to outlaw war is being pursued in the best and most effective way and whether it is a cause in which the United States should co-operate are large questions upon which there has been much heated debate. Historians are happily able, by the very ideals of their profession, to take a more detached view. My only purpose in this paper has been to set before you certain leading principles which, I believe, can serve as a compass to chart our general course and to help us determine how far we must yield in our insistence upon national liberty in favor of the international unity which a recent war has shown to be so urgently needed.

C. G. FENWICK

THE POLITICAL BACKGROUND OF FRENCH FOREIGN POLICY

The policy of M. Herriot in foreign affairs has won much applause from other nations. A great eagerness has been expressed, particularly in the British press, for the further extension of his "timely concessions." His actions have been wise and conciliatory and his spirit is far from intransigent, but the likelihood of any further compromise by M. Herriot does not depend upon his personal disposition. His conduct is very definitely conditioned by the particular situation in which his party finds itself in regard to French political opinion. It is worth while, therefore, to consider briefly some of the political forces which unquestionably influence M. Herriot in his foreign policy.

M. Poincaré, in the days of his power, had the advantage of the support of a coalition—the *bloc national*—which had become substantially welded by cohesion ever since the war. While the opinion throughout the country was not entirely favorable to the Poincaré régime, his position in the Chamber was relatively secure and he was absolutely safe in the Senate. By the peculiar operation of what the French choose to call "proportional representation," the *bloc national* enjoyed a disproportionate authority in the old chamber. With 31,784,000 votes in the country Poincaré commanded 356 seats in the Chamber, while his rivals of the Left with 27,047,051 votes at the polls held only 170 seats. Poincaré, therefore, had little to fear in the Chamber itself, his chief concern being to avoid a revulsion against his policy by French opinion at large. In regard to this also he was safe as long as there was any reasonable prospect of success for his policy in the Ruhr. But a great uneasiness was growing in French minds during the last months of 1923, and the early part of 1924. This was not so much due to disapproval of Poincaré's plan in itself, as to a growing realization that the plan was involving France most dangerously—leaving her almost isolated in European diplomacy without bringing any returns from Germany by way of compensation. The indemnities were not forthcoming, and, meanwhile, the Ruhr occupation was expensive and had called forth foreign criticisms of which Frenchmen were acutely conscious.

M. Poincaré was never a popular man in France, though his sterling virtues of honesty, caution, and passionate nationalism were generally approved. The picture of Poincaré as the Bismark of post-war diplomacy is excessively drôle to the French mind. His countrymen have ever had a keen sense of the prime minister's lack of skill in political management and the narrow range of his vision. Frenchmen resented the scant regard which Poincaré gave to ever pressing domestic affairs in his absorption in foreign policy. His retention of his post was the result of a conviction that only a man of single purpose and devotion with more than his share of stubborn determination could secure any consideration whatever for France from the nations which had veered so rapidly away from common agreements toward their separate interests. The overthrow of the Poincaré ministry was brought about almost by accident, an insignificant majority giving an adverse vote on a detail of a pension bill which had been clumsily handled by the Minister of Finance. But the result of the general election which followed this reverse was intentional and direct. Poincaré's failure of re-election was a personal defeat intentionally administered. It was not, however, the result of the Ruhr policy so much as disapproval of the neglect of important domestic concerns, and disquiet over the decline of the franc and over the government's failure to secure any German indemnities by means of the Ruhr occupation. There was a very general belief that it was time to try new methods.

In the election of May 11, there were some fifteen parties in the field. Distinctions among these groups are somewhat difficult to trace as party principles were in some cases almost interchangeable. In general alignment, however, the parties fell sharply into two divisions. Except for the Royalists and the Communists, all parties belonged either to the old *bloc national* or to the *bloc des gauches*. The defection from the *bloc national* was unmistakable, but it is worthy of notice that it was a general shifting toward the Left, and was in no sense a landslide indicating any revolutionary change in public opinion. The *bloc national* lost 1,300,000 votes, but retained in the popular count a slight plurality over the parties of the Left. The distribution of seats, however, transformed this loss into a significant defeat.

It must be borne constantly in mind that the strength of the *bloc des gauches* in the country is not equivalent to its strength in the Chamber. The country as a whole is still moderately conservative. There were 30,419,347 votes cast for the Poincaré régime as against 28,139,830 for the Radical control. But the distribution of seats among the various parties has given the Radicals under M. Herriot 181 votes which can be counted upon absolutely, and 286 which can be depended upon under ordinary circumstances. By the general support of two more conservative parties of the center, the government can count upon a strength of 418 votes upon most questions as against 116 votes assigned to the *bloc national* and the additional opposition of the Royalists and Communists. In detail the present Chamber consists from Right to Left of 20 Royalists led by M. Daudet; 116 Republican—Democratic coalitionists—the remains of the *bloc national*; 56 Republicans of the Left with M. Tardieu as one of their leaders; 76 Left Democrats with a number of very able members (these two parties give their support to the Radicals upon most issues, but are unhampered by any fixed allegiance toward the *bloc des gauches*); 142 Radicals, or Radical Socialists, who constitute the government party, and acting with these, a small additional group of 39 Republican Socialist led by M. Briand and M. Painlevé; 105 Unified Socialists under the leadership, particularly, of M. Léon Blum, supporting but not participating in the government; and finally, 30 Communists who, like the Royalists, are generally opposed to the Radical régime.

Something more than a statement of figures is necessary for an understanding of the actual position of the Herriot government even in the Chamber, and this is yet more apparent when one considers its support in the country as a whole. In the first place, the Radical and Independent (or Republican) Socialists are the two parties actively participating in the government and responsible for its success. These two parties control in their own numbers, as has been seen, only 181 votes. They could easily be defeated by a combination of other parties. Coalition of some kind is essential for them. Considering the conservative nature of the election it was at first supposed—one may even say “hoped”—that M. Herriot would seek a coalition with the two moderate parties directly to his right. This would have given him 132 more votes

and would have resulted in a left-central bloc with a strength all told of 313. Incidentally it would have been a relatively safe combination in as much as it would have come very near to an exact measure of the state of public opinion. But the Radicals did not choose to make a combination of this nature, preferring to secure the support of the Unified Socialist, 105 strong.

This advance toward the Socialists was strongly opposed by the small but energetic group of communists who form the extreme Left. The Socialists found themselves courted by their neighbors from either side and were thus enabled to dictate terms most profitable to themselves as the price of their support. The party was almost split over the offer by M. Herriot of offices in the Cabinet. Léon Blum, M. Renaudel, and Paul Faurè were in favor of retaining an absolutely independent position toward the Radicals, believing that in this manner a definite price for Socialist support could be secured at each successive crisis of the Herriot government. Paul Boncour and M. Varenne on the contrary felt that the party could secure the most by accepting the proffered offices. A congress of the party was held on June 1-2, and a letter from M. Herriot was received explaining the proposed Radical program, and asking for Socialist co-operation. The program was framed with a view to Socialist demands. M. Léon Blum, however, controlled the counsels of his party, and the Socialists voted to retain complete independence in the Chamber, refusing to take any part in the government. They promised, however, to grant support in so far as the program of the government suited their purposes. As a price of this conditional support, they demanded the removal of the President of the Republic. The Radicals were not opposed to this move. In fact, they met with the Socialists on June 1, and passed a resolution calling for the resignation of M. Millerand who had identified himself very fully with the Poincaré regime.

The success of the Left in forcing out the President was the first fruit of the Radical-Socialist *rapprochement*. It was accomplished by the refusal of M. Herriot to take office under President Millerand, and by a legislative strike against any appointment other than that of M. Herriot. On June 10, the Chamber voted, 329-214, to adjourn until a ministry was formed which should command a majority. This vote serves as a practical test of the strength of the Left in a crucial contest. In this vote the center

parties refused to give united support to the *bloc des gauches*. To the surprise of the entire country the Senate, which had retained a Poincaré majority, refused to open a tug-of-war with the Chamber over the question of the President's tenure of office. On June 11, M. Millerand handed in his resignation. The Senate met at Versailles to elect his successor. In this election the Senate showed its independence of all Radical dictation. M. Herriot's candidate was Poinlevé but M. Gaston Doumergue was elected 515-309. Nothing was left for M. Herriot but to secure for his candidate the Presidency of the Chamber. It is only in the Chamber that Herriot's leadership is beyond question.

This contest over ex-President Millerand serves clearly enough to show the essential peculiarities in the position of the Radicals today. The first item of importance is the bargain with the Socialists. At any critical point Léon Blum becomes a virtual dictator of governmental policy. For this reason—but not for this reason alone—M. Herriot is under the necessity of following out the conciliatory foreign policy which the Socialists approve. The utmost adroitness in doing this is essential, for the Senate retains its conservative and nationalist bias. Too complete a concession to the Socialists on foreign affairs will invariably lead to an overthrow of the government from the opposition of the Senate. In the Senate sits M. Poincaré, himself, and the strength of his leadership is keenly felt by M. Herriot. This was especially true during the course of the London conference. Back of both the Senate and the Chamber, moreover, is the moderate conservatism of France itself. M. Herriot is under no delusion as to the nature of the victory on May 11. The course he can follow in foreign affairs is rather closely charted. The greater his success, the wider the latitude that will be permitted him within his prescribed limits. In general, however, he may be said to be riding three rather ill assorted horses. He must keep the support of the Socialists for the sake of his management of the Chamber. He must not arouse the determined opposition of the Senate, and in this connection M. Poincaré is keeping him under a careful scrutiny. He must not antagonize the French people who are not as yet in a frame of mind for international experiments.

A study of the Herriot foreign policy shows the traces of these checks and balances. M. Herriot has analyzed his position clearly.

He has led France with success through the difficult path of concession. The outside limit of French conciliation has often been touched but not yet passed. In the London Conference he was eminently successful. In the League of Nations Assembly he was forceful, but how fully successful remains to be seen. In question of the debts he is restricted even more pressingly by the forces that bear upon him. The political situation in a very real sense is a dominating factor in the entire Herriot foreign policy.

KATHARINE JEANNE GALLAGHER

TREASURER'S REPORT FOR 1923-1924

RECEIPTS

Cash on hand May 3, 1923.....	\$ 325.38
Dues collected during the year.....	445.10
Advertisements in Proceedings.....	190.00
Sale of Proceedings.....	100.00
Interest on bank deposits.....	11.47
Total receipts.....	\$1,071.95

EXPENDITURES

Expenses incident to re-organization (1922-1923).....	\$ 30.00
Expenses of secretary at New York and Bethlehem meetings.....	26.60
Other expenses of these meetings (expenses of speakers, tips, entertainment of dinner guests).....	58.75
Postage and stationery.....	85.25
Multigraphing notices, etc.....	31.55
Clerical assistance.....	70.50
Publishing Proceedings.....	288.98
Printing membership lists (for the last two years).....	22.49
Printing programs and so forth for the May meeting....	40.00
Balance on hand.....	417.83
Total.....	\$1,071.95

LENA C. VAN BIBBER

Treasurer.

May 9, 1924

Audited and found correct

P. LEWIS KAYE

A. M. ISANOGLA

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I. *Name and Purpose*

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland". Its purpose shall be two-fold: First, to advance the study and teaching of history and other social sciences through discussion and publication and, secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students in these fields.

ARTICLE II. *Membership*

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history and other social sciences in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

ARTICLE III. *Officers*

Section 1. There shall be a president, a vice-president and a secretary-treasurer, elected by ballot at the annual spring meeting. Their duties shall be those usually attached to their respective offices. The secretary-treasurer shall carefully preserve records of all meetings of the Council and of all business sessions of the Association; and these and other important records and correspondence shall be kept on file in the office of the Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 2. The general direction of the affairs of the Association shall be vested in a Council, consisting of the three officers, the former presidents of the Association, two members elected annually and one delegate each appointed annually by such local associations as the Council may from time to time designate for this purpose.

ARTICLE IV. *Meetings*

The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at the time and place designated by the Council.

ARTICLE V. *Fiscal Year and Dues*

The fiscal year shall begin with the annual business meeting. The membership fee shall be one dollar, payable annually in April for the ensuing year. Members who have not paid their dues for the current year shall not be entitled to receive the publications of the Association while in arrears, and members who are two years in arrears and have received three notices of their indebtedness shall be regarded as having forfeited their membership.

ARTICLE VI. *Amendments*

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given *in advance of the meeting*.

REPORT OF SECRETARY

Read at Meeting, May 9, 1924

After two years of service, the Secretary-Treasurer feels that it is possible to present to you not only some facts indicating the present status of the Association, but also some conclusions as to our normal rate of growth and what corresponding annual income the Association can count on with some degree of certainty. No such prognosis could have been made earlier, since the year 1922-23 was not a normal year, and its income of \$785.87 reached that extraordinary total through the collection of *back dues* and the sale to libraries of an unusual number of the proceedings of *former* years. This enabled us to bring up the small balance of 1922, \$29.25, to the more comfortable sum of \$325.38, reported last May. This present year I was happy to report that this favorable balance has been still further increased and is now \$417.83.

The exact number of members in 1922 cannot be stated, but the list printed in the proceedings of 1920, the only list extant at that time, counted 368. However, on investigation, it was found that apparently only 110 of these were paid up to date, the remainder, 258, being in arrears anywhere from one year to seven. In truth the affairs of the Association had reached so critical a stage that

drastic action was called for. The in-coming president, Professor J. Montgomery Gambrill of Teachers College, Columbia University, aware of the situation, was not slow to inaugurate a new and carefully planned policy. The actual results of this policy have been so beneficial and far-reaching, so indicative of talent and time expended in a manner as unusual as it was generous, that it is fitting to take this opportunity to register the grateful recognition accorded Professor Gambrill by the entire Association.

A careful canvass was begun in June, 1922, to ascertain just how many active members the Association numbered, and also to decide whether or not we could maintain ourselves without increasing our dues. The proceedings of 1923 showed the result of our work in trying to reach the facts of the situation. In the new membership list we had eliminated 92 names, yet, in spite of this apparent loss, the number of members had actually increased, and now stood at 385. There had been a substantial addition of new names and a number of former members had re-joined. During the year 1923-24, as a result of a provision of the new constitution, still further re-adjustments had been effected, so that the roll printed in the last proceedings represents more truly actual facts; forty-four names had been dropped and 89 added, giving a total of 430. Since that publication, I wish to report further changes: 6 names dropped (3 through death, 3 through resignation), and 39 gained, so that we have reached the highest enrollment of our history, 469, 84 in excess of any former number. The membership of the Association has, during the twenty-one years of its existence, pursued a gentle but persistent trend upward. In the 1905 list, the earliest recorded, there were 314 members, a height not surpassed until 1915 with 327 (in fact in 1912 it had dropped to 215); in 1917 it mounted to 343, in 1919 dropped to 340 and so on. It seems reasonable, in view of our present number—469, to find mild encouragement at this report.

A further consideration for us is the matter of *financial support*. Do the present annual dues adequately support the activities of our organization? A partial reply as to probabilities might be made from a study of the cash book of the past two years. By such a study one can draw certain tentative deductions with respect to (1) the paying habits of the membership; (2) the normal loss of members per annum; (3) the probable corresponding gain; and

(4) the usual expenses. It might be reasonable, judging by past records, to count on the annual income from dues to range between 80% and 85% of the enrollment. This was true of the year just past. In addition, we might count on an average yearly increase of membership of at least 20%. This should bring us from membership dues alone an annual revenue approximating \$400. Last year you will notice we did better than this. From the sale of Proceedings, we realize, generally speaking, probably \$50 each year. This year it was \$75, but there was a special reason for that. From interest on our balance in bank we get about \$12, and from advertisements from \$100 to \$150, according to circumstances. We should thus depend on a yearly revenue of not less than \$600. On the other hand, just as our membership and our sources of revenue are increasing, so also are our expenses. To keep a growing and going concern in good condition must, as you realize, require a very great deal of clerical work, postage and stationery, besides some mimeographing and printing. Notice these items of expense in the financial report for 1923-24 and you will gain some notion of what I mean. The publishing of the annual Proceedings is, of course, our main expense and this year, because of the increased size of that publication, the bill for printing alone was practically \$300, in spite of the fact that the work was done at an extraordinarily low price. A large and growing item will be that of clerical help and postage; the number of letters received and written by the officers of an organization is the measure of its aliveness. It should be borne in mind, in addition, that there must always be assured a sufficient balance to meet emergencies and possible lean years, such as have occasionally been our portion in the past, and also to *provide* for the expenses incident to our annual meetings and occasionally to secure speakers outside of our own membership. This past year we have maintained our balance, and indeed, through a rather extraordinary combination of circumstances, actually increased it; but, be it noted, that our expenses of this period have rather exceeded what I have estimated as reasonable expectations as to yearly income.

To sum up, the Secretary would say, that in her opinion the Association has an assured position, nay even a bright outlook. It is growing in every way, not perhaps in any sensational manner, but nevertheless substantially. She would point out that the

annual income is sufficient to meet, in a modest way, annual expenses, but she must add this warning that care and economy will always be needed, and that your co-operation, interest and support must be constantly forthcoming if we are to continue to be a going concern.

LENA C. VAN BIBBER,
Secretary-Treasurer.

1924-1925

President

JOHN H. LATANÉ

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

Vice-President

ALFRED C. BRYAN

HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, NEW YORK CITY

Secretary-Treasurer

LENA C. VAN BIBBER

MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TOWSON, MD.

FORMER PRESIDENTS

Lucy Salmon, Vassar College

C. M. Andrews, Yale University

J. H. Robinson, New School for Social Research

C. A. Herrick, Girard College

Eleanor L. Lord, Smith College

H. V. Ames, University of Pennsylvania

James Sullivan, State Historian, Albany

Edgar Dawson, Hunter College

A. E. McKinley, Editor, Historical Outlook

Henry Johnson, Teachers College, Columbia University

J. M. Vincent, Johns Hopkins University

Jessie C. Evans, Wm. Penn High School, Philadelphia

M. S. Brown, New York University

L. R. Schuyler, College of the City of New York

D. C. Knowlton, Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York

A. K. Heckel, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.

R. W. Kelsey, Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.

J. M. Gambrill, Teachers College, Columbia University

F. E. Moyer, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City

ELECTED

C. J. H. Hayes, Columbia University

Ruth Wanger, South Philadelphia High School for Girls

DELEGATES FROM CONFERENCES

A. C. Bryan, High School of Commerce, New York

Laura J. Cairnes, Eastern High School, Baltimore

Sarah A. Dynes, State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

James C. Sigman, Frankford High School, Philadelphia

LIST OF MEMBERS

Note.—The arrangement in this list is: (1) name, (2) institution, (3) residence.
The city or postoffice address is given only once if it is the same for both (2) and (3).

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 Allen, Joseph Dana, Headmaster, Polytechnic Preparatory Country Day
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 Andrews, Ada Mary, 3305 Windsor Mill Road, Baltimore, Md.
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 Bamberger, Florence Eilau, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.,
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 Bamberger, Stella H., 1029 Madison Ave., Baltimore, Md.
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 Clark, Marion G., High School, Pitman, N. J., 318 Laurel Ave.
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- Hayes, Carlton J. H., Columbia University, New York City, 508 W. 114 St.,
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